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ABSTRACT

This manual is intended to assist volunteers and staff of volunteer organizations in the design of projects in various community and social service areas. The first section of the manual is a guidebook that addresses such aspects of the planning, implementation, and evaluation process as situational analysis, needs assessment, task-oriented planning, progress and product evaluation, problem solving, and follow-up. Addressed in a chapter dealing with methods are the following topics: information gathering methods (library search, field surveys, consulting experts, task forces, and technical conferences); planning and implementation methods (community organization, group discussion, bargaining and negotiation, model behavior, nonformal education, technical assistance, and cost analysis); and evaluation methods (feedback, practical tests, and presentation of data and information). Concluding the guide are a series of how-to-do-it manuals devoted to health and primary care, water and sanitation, nutrition and food production, education, economic development, community services, and energy and conservation. (MN)



Systematic Project Design:

A Handbook for Volunteers

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SYSTEMATIC PROJECT DESIGN:
A HANDBOOK FOR VOLUNTEERS

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PREFACE

1. WHO CAN USE THIS BOOK

It was written primarily for volunteers and staff of volunteer organizations, but it can be used by anyone developing and carrying out social service programs: These volunteer areas are emphasized:

- health and primary care
- water and sanitation
- nutrition and food production
- education
- economic development
- community service
- energy conservation

2: WHY A BOOK ON SYSTEMATIC PROJECT DESIGN

Volunteers and others providing services to people have a difficult job.

- They may be assigned to an unfamiliar community.
- They may be asked to design, select or work on a project with which they are not familiar.
- They may not be certain how to get a project underway, how to involve the community or how to evaluate what they are doing.

This Handbook will assist volunteers and others in carrying out successful projects. It does so by:

- Presenting issues which should be considered in developing volunteer projects
- Assisting you to identify, in advance, problems which may occur.
- Providing you with a series of methods and techniques you may use in designing projects.
- Providing you with tools and guidelines to plan and assess your projects.

Also included with the Handbook is a bibliography of "How-to-do-it" manuals, concerned with specific volunteer activities and projects.

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HOW THE HANDBOOK IS ORGANIZED

There are three parts:

- 1. A Guidebook;
- Methods, and 2.
- 3: How-to-do-it Manuals: Bibliography

1. The Guidebook (Part I)

The Guidebook describes how to plan, implement and evaluate projects. Each chapter is divided into sections describing:

- The approach: What is this step?
- Why the approach is important.
- the planning forms which are part of • Whin to complete How to complete the chapter.

2. Methods (Part II)

The Methods part presents some approaches for carrying out the various steps in systematic project design.

Each method includes a description of the method's advantages, disadvantages, examples, and references.

Each chapter in the Guidebook (Part I) suggests one or more methods to use in meeting the objectives of the chapter. Review the methods referred to and select these most useful.

How-to-do-it Manuals (Part_III)

A selected bibliography of how-to-do-it magnals in social service areas is provided. Manuals are grouped according to project area.

HOW TO USE THE HANDBOOK

The Guidebook (Part I) provides procedures for planning, implementing and evaluating projects. Follow the guidelines presented in each chapter and complete the planning forms.

The Guidebook refers you to one or more of the Methods (Part II) sections. Read these Methods sections and include appropriate methods in your plans.



If you need a how-to-do-it manual for further guidance, read Part III and select a manual or manuals which appear to be useful.

As noted; the Handbook has three major sections -- the Guidebook is Part I; the Methods Section is Part II; and How-to-do-it Manuals is Part III;

If you are not certain how to use either the Guidebook or the Methods, consult Chart 2 on page 8.

First: consult Column 1, in which you will find a series of statements. One or more of these statements may fit your situation as a volunteer.

Second: when you find a statement in Column 1 which describes your situation, read the box in Column 2 which is along side the statement that fits your position; there you will find, hopefully, a solution to your problem and the chapter in the Handbook to consult.

Third: in Column 3, along side your "solution" in Column 21, you will find the method or approach to use in solving your problem.

5. HOW THE HANDBOOK WAS DEVELOPED

The idea for a Handbook on planning, implementing, and evaluating volunteer projects was suggested by the Office of Citizen Voluntary Participation (OCVP), in ACTION, Washington, D.C. ACTION is the U.S. government agency concerned with volunteer programs.

OCVP asked Boston University's Center for Educational Development in Health (CEDH) to develop and field test the Handbook. A two-phase project plan was developed:

During Phase I the Handbook was produced in draft form, read by people in volunteer programs, and tested and reviewed by volunteers and staff in volunteer programs in Jamaica and Sri Lanka. The material will be revised again, and in Phase II, the Handbook will be applied to a variety of volunteer projects abroad and in the United States.

6. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful to our Project Monitor, Mr. Frank Rey, ACTION/OCVP, for his support and editorial review.

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Volunteers and staff of the National Youth Services Council, Sri Lanka, were particularly helpful in their use of the Handbook to plan a road and a health education project for the village of Bambarabedde. Special thanks go to: (volunteers) P. H. Ariyawansa, Kusum Deerasinghe, W. K. S. Kularatne, Kamala Machawasinghe, S. Mahadeva, E. D. Nandawathie, Swarnatilake Premawardena, Prema Rathgalle, Rukman K. Wimalasuriya, and Shanti Wickramasinghe. (Staff): Mr. Charitha Ratwatte, Chairman National Youth Services Council Sri Lanka; Mr. P. M. Leelaretne, Deputy Director NYSC; Mr. Verawardena, Assistant Director NYSC; Mr. M. B. Adikaram, Registrar Peradeniya University; and Mr. C. S. Bakmedeniya, Volunteer Nation Builders.

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Hannelore Vanderschmidt Boston University Center for Educational Development in Health

Maria Alice Sigaud Lent Universidade Federal De Rio De Janeiro Nucleo Detecnologia Educational Para a Saude

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PART I

<u>GUI DEBOOK</u>

The Guidebook describes the steps and procedures in planning, implementing, and evaluating projects.



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INTRODUCTION

THE PLANNING, IMPLEMENTATION, AND EVALUATION PROCESS

A: WHY PROGRAMS FAIL

Human service programs are sometimes not successful for many reasons. The most frequently given reasons — the shortage of manpower, the lack of knowledge and skills, and the shortage of equipment and materials — are rarely the major factors. There are more important issues: the failure to plan, to develop teamwork and consensus, to identify and analyze problems and resources, to establish realistic goals, and thus to effectively organize human resources to carry out workable programs.

Here is what we mean:

- A poorly maintained bus breaks down and students are not delivered to class.
- The sanitation expert is not available; as a result, the wells are improperly constructed:
- Cement is not delivered, so a village latrine is not constructed.
- Seedlings arrive, but are dried out...the reforestation project fails.
- Horth workers wait for patients to come to the health centers -- but they rarely do. Meanwhile, health needs go unattended.

We may view these as failings, shortcomings, or breakdowns in the system. Indeed they are, but the sources of the breakdown, in the final analysis, is human failure, such as:

- A failure to understand the setting in which projects must function.
- Misinterpretation of the needs of the people to be served.
- Setting unrealistic goals.
- Inadequate planning
- No attempt made to evaluate if the project works.
- The absence of alternative courses of action.
- The inability to identify and respond to problems.
- The failure to mobilize reluctant individuals and groups.



A problem solving approach will be used. It will help to:

- Understand the setting or environment in which the project will function;
- Identify the problem or issues;
- Specify the end results or products to be produced;
- Recognize whether or not we have identified all the elements of a problem;
- Identify the steps which will lead to the end result;
- Specify the resources needed;
- Recognize whether or not progress is occurring; and
- Decognize whether the goals have been reached:

B. THE PARTS OF SYSTEMATIC PROJECT DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

The nature of a volunteer's assignment can vary from well-defined to undefined assignments. Here are three situations:

- 1. A volunteer may be assigned to a well-defined job, such as going to a specified village, enrolling 25 adults in a nutrition education program, and using a previously-developed curriculum to teach the program.
- 2. A volunteer may be assigned to an area containing 15 villages and told to construct wells in three villages.
- 3. A volunteer may be assigned without a specific work assignment to a place for one year.

In all three situations, volunteers can develop their projects following the Systematic Project Design process. However, the extent to which steps will be used will vary. In the case of the first situation, for instance, the project development process will not be as detailed as in the case of the second, and especially the third example.

Chart 1 presents Systematic Project Design, a problem-identifying and problem-solving process. It describes the project as a series of steps from the initial contact with a community to successful completion of the project. YOU VILL NOT NECESSARILY FOLLOW EACH STEP IN THE ORDER PRESENTED IN CHART 1. WHERE YOU WILL START WILL DEPEND ON YOUR PROJECT AND YOUR EXPERIENCE WITH THE COMMUNITY.

We identify the "givens" by conducting a <u>Struational Analysis</u> and <u>People's Needs Assessment</u>.



1. The Situational Analysis (Chapter I)

This is logically the first step, because you need to know about the people and their setting before you can begin to plan a project.

The Situational Analysis must answer these questions:

- What are the organizations with which you will be concerned?
- Who are the people with whom you work?
- How do they live?
- What is the physical setting of the community in which you will work?

2. The Needs Assessment (Chapter II)

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This step identifies and describes your project. The Needs Assessment must answer such questions as:

- What will be the specific learning objectives of a training program?
- Is a school needed?
- How large will the school be?
- Is a well needed?
- Where will it be constructed, and what will be its capacity?
- What nutritional deficiencies will the home gardens overcome?

Once the Needs Assessment has produced a description and definition of your proposed project, the project may require review and approval.

Project Planning and Implementation, Evaluation, and Problem-Solving are carried out at the same time.

3. Task Oriented Project Planning and Implementation (Chapter III)

Project planning should occur before the project starts. It involves setting goals, and determining a step-by-step procedure for achieving each goal. Planning also determines what materials/supplies, equipment, and personnel are needed to carry out the project.

4. Progress and Project Evaluation (Chapter IV)

The purpose of evaluation is to obtain information before, during, and after the project. The main purpose of evaluation is to keep the project moving ahead. Evaluation is also useful in finding out if the project has achieved its goal.

5. Problem-Solving (Chapter V)

If tasks defined by the project planners are not carried out or are not on schedule, corrective action is needed.

This section gives you help in identifying problems and suggests remedies.

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CHART 1

SYSTEMATIC PROJECT DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

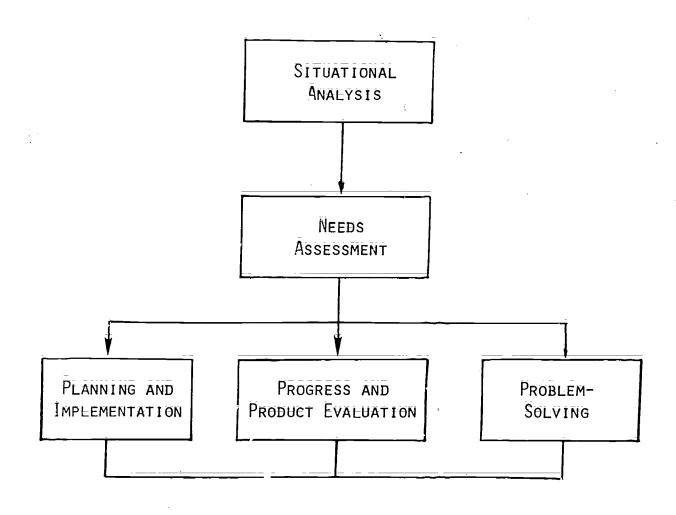






CHART 2

Column 1

Column 2

 $\overline{\text{Column}}$ 3

If Your Problem Is	Begin With Chapter	Use One or More of These Methods
You have been assigned to a new and strange community. You would like to know how many infants there are in a village, how many people have goats, how often people go to the health center, etc.	Chapter I	Library Search, page 75 Field Survey, page 78 Observation, page 78 Consult Experts, page 84 Task Forces, Technical Conferences, page 84
You are just starting your volunteer assignment and do not know what to do:	Chapter I	Same as Above
You are familiar with the community in which you will work, but do not know how to identify a project	Chapter II	Community Organizations, page 86 Group Discussion, page 89 Bargaining and Negotiation, page 94 Field Surveys, page 78
You have several project ideas and must narrow your selection to one	Chapter II	Same as Above
You have a volunteer project defined, but you do not know what the specific tasks are, how they should be carried out, and other practical details:	Chapter III	Same as Above
You are planning a project with villagers; they strongly prefer a poultry cooperative; you know nothing about poultry or cooperatives	Chapter II	Look at How-to-do-it Manuals page 121; order appropriate manuals

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Column 3		
If Your Problem Is	Begin With Chapter	Use One or More of These Methods
Your volunteer project is well-defined; however, you are not sure how to start it, what should be done immed-iately, when supplies should be ordered	Chapter III	Same as Above
Your project is underway, but things are not progress-ing as they should attendance in classes is dropping off, promised assistance from villagers is not forthcoming	Chapter V	Non-formal Education including on-the-job training, page 99 Providing Model Behavior, page 97 Group Discussion, page 89 Bargaining and Negotiation, page 94
Your project is underway. You are not certain how effective or useful your project will be. You want to find out what community members think of your project.	Chapter IV	Group Discussion, page 89 Field Survey, page 78 Feedback, page 110
Your project is underway, and you are facing a technical problem	Chāptēr III	Consult one or more of the How-to-do-it Manual see page 121 Consult Experts, page 84 Library Search, page 75 Cost Analysis, page 106
You may be planning your project or have one underway; and are faced with two opposing groups in the village one group wants the project to go in one direction; the other group in another direction	Chapter V	Bargaining and Negotiation, page 94 Group Discussion, page 89 Community Organization, page 86 Providing Model Behavior, page 97



CHAPTER I: SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS

A. <u>INTRODUCTION</u>

You have been assigned to the community in which you will work. You may or may not have a specific project. You may not be familiar with the community. Your first task should be to study the community in which you will work — to understand the people, their beliefs, characteristics and problems. This is called a SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS.

B. <u>SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS:</u> WHAT, WHY, AND WHEN

What is a SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS?

An analysis of the community and setting in which you will work. Your interest is to learn about the people and setting of the community, not the project you will eventually complete.

Why a SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS? To assist you in identifying physical, social, and cultural factors important to you, sensitize you to the community. To become familiar with the community and the community familiar with you. To collect information to assist in project planning.

Is a SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS necessary?

	etermine if a SITUATION ANALYSIS is necessary, er questions below:
i.	Have you and most of your fellow volunteers had previous experience with the community?
	1. Ÿes
	2. No
2.	Has the community had previous experience with volunteers?
	i. Yes
	2. No
	answe



3.	Are most community leaders able to explain the purpose of your volunteer organization?
	1. Yes
	2. No
4 .	Will community participation be an important factor to the success of your project?
	i. Yes
	2. No
5.	Does the success of your project depend on your ability to work with the community?
	1. Yes
	2. No
6 ;	Do you have the following information about the community in which you will work?
	 a. the population of the community by age and sex groups
	1. Yes 🔲 2. No 🔲
	 b. a map of the community showing where the main buildings, houses, wells, etc. are located
	1. Yes 2. No
	c. who the formal and informal leaders of the community are
	1. Yes 2. No
	d. a list of the main types of work being done in the community
75	1. Yes 2. No
	e: the main sources of income
,	1. Yes 2. No
	f. the number of households with safe water in the house
	1. Yes 2. No .
	12

ÿ.	the proportion of children 6 through 15 years of age not in school
h.	1. Yes 2. No the proportion of children who show some
	signs of poor nutrition: very thin, bloated belly, blind, goiter, etc.
	1. Yes 2. No
i.	the number of infants who died in the past year before reaching one rear
	1. Yes 2. No

GUIDELINES

C: GUIDELINES FOR SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS

After completing the questionnaire, count the number of points you have received by totaling the numbers along side each box you have checked -- either 1 or 2 points for each question. Write in the space the total number of points you count.

If your total score is 14 points

You may have a completed SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS. Review your information asking these questions:

- Is your information no more than six months old?
- Does the information you have consist of a survey of all the main groups in the community?
- Was the information collected in a systematic way?

If you can still answer "yes" to these questions, then you may want to skip the SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS.

If your total score is more than 15, but less than 18

You may have a fairly complete SITUATIONAL ANALYSTS: Review the 3 questions listed above. If your answer to each is "yes", return to your questionsalie: examine your responses to questions 1 through 5. If your score for any of these questions is "2", then you should complete a SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS.

lf your score is greater than 18 Complete a thorough SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS.

Form 1, page 15, is a sample form you may want to use in completing your SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS.

How to complete a SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS

Review the following form, page 15

- delete information which is not important
- add information requirements important to you

Now complete Form #1, SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS, which follows.

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Name:	
Date:	
Project:	

Form #1

SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS

ĪSSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
Population		
1. a. Total estimated population:	Library Search, page 75	
b. Age structure:	Field Surveys; page 78	
• infants less than one year old		,
• children 1-4		
• other age groups:		
. 5-14		
15–59		
60 and over		
• classify age groups by sex		Ŕ
male female		
5-14		
15-59		
60 and over		
c. Total households		
d. Average number of individuals per household		
Education		
. a. Number of primary and secondar schools	Field Surveys, page 78	
b: Other schools	Consulting	
c. Percent of primary age and secondary age children in school	Experts, page 84	
	4	



Library Search
of existing
studies and
reports such
as census
reports,
page 75
Field Surveys,
page 78

POSSIBLE METHODS

METHODS YOU USED

Consulting Experts, page 84

endar year. Number of children one to five years who died

per 1000

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Field Surveys, page 78-Library Research, page 75 Consulting Experts, page 84

ISSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
5. Social setting: Local cultural practices which might affect a project	Field Surveys, page 78 Consulting Experts, page 84	
b. Family structure		
c. Major religious groups.	-	
. major rerigious groups.	. 8	
d. Major caste class groups		. L
e. Community decision-making process	7	The state of the s
	<u>=</u>	
	1	

ISSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
f. Community leaders both formal and informal		
g. Organization of community's government		
h. History and experience with volunteers	حي	
6. Physical setting:	Field Su rve y,	
a. Is a map of the community available which indicates major boundaries, roads, footpaths, wells, houses, rivers, agriculture areas? Yes No If not, make one.	page 78 Consulting Experts, page 84	·

		ISSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
	b.	Major environmental character- istics which might affect your project, such as climate, soil, rain, etc.	- .	
	÷		=	
7:	Eco	onomic acrivities:		
	ä.	Total cash income of the commun- ity (estimate)		;
	Б.	Percentage of households with cash income		
	c.	Percentage of community workers in non-agricultural work?	,	
	ā:	Percentage of workers in agri- culture	·	
	$ar{e}$.	Three major crops produced in the community		
		1)		
		3)		
		Average family size of land holdings		
	ë∙	Kind of animals raised for food		,
		Percentage of young people 15-30 Who are employed? Who are looking for work?		



CHAPTER II: NEEDS ASSESSMENT: DETERMINING WANTS AND NEEDS

A. INTRODUCTION

Your SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS is underway, perhaps completed. You are generally familiar with the setting in which you will work. Now you want to think about and plan a project. You must complete a NEEDS ASSESSMENT.

B. NEEDS ASSESSMENT: WHAT, WHY, AND WHEN

What is a NEEDS ASSESSMENT?

The identification and description of the community's needs to be satisfied by a project. A NEEDS ASSESSMENT verifies the project is needed and wanted by the community.

Why a NEEDS ASSESSMENT?

A community has many needs; your project cannot satisfy all needs; priorities must be identified. You and the community may or may not agree on priorities. A NEEDS ASSESSMENT will help reach agreement. Later, you will plan the project in detail. At the NEEDS ASSESSMENT stage you will determine whether or not the project has community support and if it will improve the quality of life of the community.

When do you perform a NEEDS ASSESSMENT?

You perform a NEEDS ASSESSMENT before you begin planning your project. This step helps you focus on a project important to the community which you are serving.

GUIDELINES >

C. GUIDELINES FOR NEEDS ASSESSMENT

Which of the following best describes your assignment:

Example 1

A specific assignment: In a specific village you are to assist 100 families in developing vegetable gardens:

Example 2.

A generally defined assignment: You have been told to examine the possibility of constructing latrines or school houses in several villages.

Example 3.

An open assignment: You will go to one of several villages for 3 months, develop and carry out a project.

Which Example best describes your assignment?

Place an "X" in the box which best describes your assignment.

Example 1: Example 2: Example 3:

If Example 1 best describes your assignment

Your NEEDS ASSESSMENT

must have been completed before your assignment:

- What evidence is there that community members need and want gardens?
- Is the soil and climate suitable for gardens?
- Is sufficient land available?
- What kind of vegetable should be grown?
- Are there 100 families in the village who will participate?

If you do not have answers to questions such as the above, examine Example 2.

If Fxample 2 best describes your assignment Your NEEDS ASSESSMENT must

obtain specific answers such as:

- What villages are most interested in the services you can provide?
- What villages are most in need of your assignment?

If Example 3 best describes your assignment Your NECDS ASSESSMENT must identify

- A project.
- The village in which you will work.

In each example you will use one or more methods. In Example 1, you will be more concerned with verifying your assignment. In Examples 2 and 3, you will produce specific information.

e next step is to identify the issues for your NEEDS ASSESSMENT.

What do you want to learn from your NEEDS ASSESSMENT?

Form 2, page 27, is a sample form you may want to use in completing your NEEDS ASSESSMENT. Review it; add or delete questions relevant to your NEEDS ASSESSMENT.

Select the methods you will use

Here is a list of possible methods to use in conducting a NEEDS ASSESSMENT: • Briefly review each method. • Select one or more methods for your NEEDS ASSESSMENT by placing an "X" in the appropriate box. Group Discussion and Community Meetings, page 89 Bargaining and Negotiations, page 94 3. Task Forces, page 84 4. Field Surveys, page 78 5. Observation, page 78 6. Consulting Experts, page 84

7. Library Search, page 75



Compare methods selected and issues to be answered Critically review your list of methods and the issues on which you wish to focus.

- Will the methods you selected produce the answers you need?
- Are you certain your methods will:
 - identify the needs of all or most community members?
 - produce agreement?
- Do you have the time and resources to use the methods selected?

Using the methods you have selected and Form #2, complete your NEEDS ASSESSMENT.

D: NOTE ON WANTS AND NEEDS

What if You Disagree With the Community's Priorities for Projects?

When doing a 'needs' assessment, you may have a different point of view than the villagers. For example, in a village with 1500 people and ten latrines, many villagers may have hook or round worms and diarrhea. You think the village needs sanitary latrines and clean and safe water. When you perform your needs analysis, however, you find that the villagers do not agree. Some want latrines, others want accessible water, others may not be interested in latrines.

Four points should be made:

- l) <u>Wants are different from needs</u>. People may <u>want</u> things which they do not need and which may harm them.
 - adults want cigarettes
 - children want candy

People may have unrecognized needs (the latrine example above).

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- 2) You should accept a person where he is now. To gain the confidence of the community, you should focus on one community-felt need.
- Recognizing a difficult problem. When all the available evidence indicates the community really needs something, but they want something alse, you are faced with a difficult problem:
 - Ignore what the community wants and you are likely to lose their support and interest
 - In some cases, if you support and carry out what the community wants, you may be involved in a project which will benefit only a small number of people or may not be used by the community.

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- 4) Analyzing the problem, possible resolutions. When faced with a conflict of needs versus wants, ask youself these questions:
 - a. Who will benefit from the project?
 - b. Will the project require changes in the behavior of people?
 - when completed, will the project's product be ignored because it requires changes in behavior which are new and strange?
 - d. Is it possible to accept what the community wants as your project and then develop a strategy such as a community education program focusing on community needs?



Name:	
Date:	
Project:	

Form #2 NEEDS ASSESSMENT

ISSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
 What are the chief problems of the community? List in order of importance. 	Field Survey, page 78 Consulting Experts, page 84	
	Task Forces, page 84	
	Technical Assistance, page 102	; ;
2. What help would villagers like?	Community Organizations, page 86	
	Group Discussion, page 89	
3. What assistance to the project will the community provide?	Group Discussion and Community Meetings, page 89	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	·	
4. Discuss ideas for a project with community leaders. Do they agree?	Bargaining and Negotiation, page 94	



ISSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
If not, how can the project be changed to make it acceptable?	Group Discussion and Community Meetings, page 89	
		•
5. Project Title:	Group Discussion and Community Meetings, page 89 Task Forces, page 84	. i
6. Project objectives and purposes: a. What is the expected outcome?	Croup Discussion and Community Meetings, page 89 Task Forces,	
	page 84 Field Surveys, page 78 Observation, page 78	
b. Why is this outcome important?	Negotiation, page 94	
28	ľ	

ISSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
7. How will the project interact with the community check the box which best applies:	·	
a. No changes in community behavior are required		
b. Change in community behavior is required		
c. The product produced may be rejected by the community		· · · ·
8. If 3a, 3b, or 3c have been checked, how will the issues be resolved?	Group Discussion and Community Meetings,	
	page 89	
		:
9. Describe the project in detail:	Group Discussion	
a. What is the project?	And Community Meetings, page 89 Task Forces,	
	page 84 Consulting	
b. Approximately how many people will benefit directly from the project?	Experts, page 84	i i
	. •	÷

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		ISSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
	Ċ.	Approximately how many people will indirectly benefit from the project?		·
j	d.	Who are: -the direct beneficiaries?		·
		-the indirect beneficiaries?		•
	ė.	What will be produced or developed in the project?		;
	Ē.	Where will the project products be located?		
	_			
	a.	Necessary local government agencies?	Group Discussion and Community Meetings,	
		The community?	page 89 Consulting Experts, page 84 Task Force, page 84	

	ISSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
	Is there reasonable expectation that the project can be completed during your assignment? Is there reasonable expectation that necessary supplies and equipment are available? a. Equipment b. Supplies c. Community Managers Other Issues	Group Discussion and Community Meetings, page 89 Consulting Experts, page 84 Task Forces, page 84	
- [



CHAPTER III: 1AS ORIENTED PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION

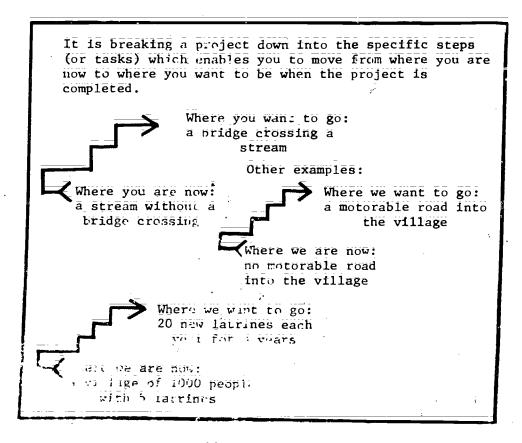
A. INTRODUCTION

You have completed your SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS and NEEDS ASSESSMENT. From the SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS, you know the problems, strengths, and resources within the community. From the NEEDS ASSESSMENT, you, your fellow volunteers and the community have defined a project which focuses on important needs in the community, the project has the support of key community leaders, and has the possibility of being completed.

The next step is to plan the project on a step-by-step basis.

B. TASK ORIENTED PLANNING: WHAT; WHY; AND WHEN

What is Task Oriented Planning?





Why Task Oriented Planning? Task Oriented Planning helps us: -

- make projects work?
- determine how to move from the beginning to the end
- identify the necessary resources and where they are needed.
- determine whether or not the project is on schedule and if not, why

Is Task Oriented Planning necessary? Planning is always necessary; how much depends on the complexity of your project. Projects vary in complexity: a simple project such as a half-day meeting of pregnant women in a village will require far less planning than a project constructing a suspension bridge over a river 30 feet wide.

When do you plan? Planning occurs after data from the needs analysis is available. Planning decisions are made on the basis of the needs analysis. Planning continues throughout the project.

GUIDELINES >

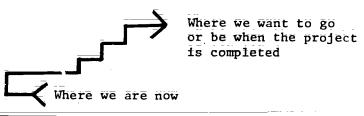
C. GUIDELINES FOR TASK ORIENTED PROJECT PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION

How to complete Task Oriented Planning

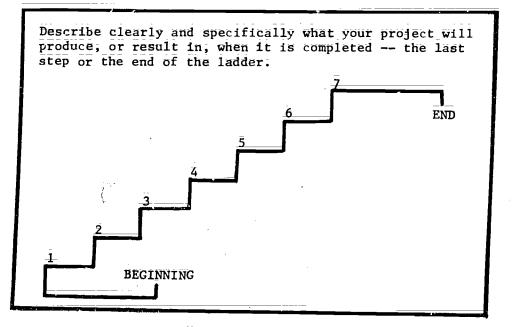
Do not develop the plan without the complete involvement of your fellow volunteers and community leaders. Here are some methods you may want to use:

- 1. Consulting Experts, Task Forces, Technical Conferences, page 84
- 2. Group Discussions, page 89
- 3. Bargaining and Negotiations, page 94
- 4. Technical Assistance, page 102
- 5. Cost Analysis, page 106
- 6. Feedback, page 110

Next, think of your project as a ladder or series of steps extending from where you are now to where you want to go.



Step 1: Where we want to be when the project is completed



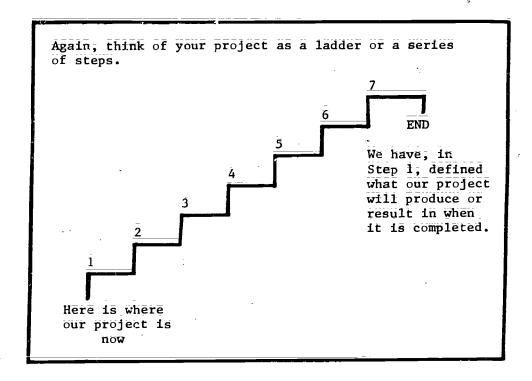


Examples

- The project will complete 10 new sanitary disposal facilities in each year for 3 years in village A and work with the villagers to insure proper use.
- The project will complete in six months one suspension bridge crossing the stream in village B capable of supporting 1 bullock or 5 people.
- The project will convert a foot path, approximately 800 meters long, into a motorable road, thus completing a motorable road to village C in 6 months
- The project will involve 25 families in village D in developing family gardens approximately 300 square meters each to produce nutritious food for family use.
- The project in 3 months will recruit 10 youths age 14 to 21 in village E and enroll them in a course combining basic reading and skill development in poultry raising, craft work, or goat raising.

Now write your end of project description on Form #3, page 41.

Step 2: Where are we now?







Some Examples

- Village A has a population of 1100 people and 5 water sealed latrines.
- Residents of village B must ford a stream (30 meters wide) or walk 5 km to the nearest bridge.
- There is no motorable road in or out of village C.
- Approximately 40% of the residents in village D suffer from nutritional deficienty disease. Twenty-five parents in the village of 600 families will stimulate villagers to develop kitchen gardens.

Now write your beginning of project description on Form #3, page 41.

Step 3:
Specifying
the steps in
the ladder
from the
beginning
to the
end

You know where you want to be when the project is completed and where you are now. Next we describe how to move from Step 1 to Step 6.

Where project will be when completed

Where project is now

Examples:

Project A

Water Sealed Latrines Examples of moving now to the end of the project.

- 1. Conduct orientation program on importance of latrines.
- 2. Identify 10 village families willing to supply the land, some of the supplies, and labor.
- 3. Select latrine sites which meet sanitary requirements.
- 4. Obtain template or form to construct 10 water sealed squat plate and piping.
- 5. Obtain necessary supplies to construct water sealed squat plate and piping.



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- 6. Construct 10 water sealed squat plates or assemble piping.
- 7. Dig one latrine hole.
- 8. Construct one latrine housing.
- Conduct orientation program on use of and maintenance of latrines.
- 10. Dig remaining latrine holes.
- 11. Construct remaining latrine housings.

Project B: Village Bridge

- 1. Organize village committee to manage the planning and construction of the bridge.
- 2. Complete feasibility study for design and location of bridge.
- 3. Submit specifications for bridge to village committee
- 4. Submit list of equipment and supplies.
- 5. Identify individuals responsible for project and supporting staff.
- 6. Dig holes for footings.
- 7. Put cement in footing holes.
- 8. Put long bolt in each footing hole with thread side up. Bolt extends 6" above cement.
- 9. Lay main supporting beams over stream. Boit down using footing boits. Attach nuts.
- 10. Lay planks across support beams. Nail down.
- 11. Make railing (attach uprights to main support beams).

Project C: Construction of a Motorable Road

- 1. Organize village committee to manage and direct construction of road.
- 2. Survey existing foot path for possible expansion into a motorable road.
- 3. List supplies and equipment needed.
- 4. List manpower requirements.
- Submit list of supplies and equipment needs to appropriate suppliers.
- 6. Develop schedule for completion of road.
- 7. Cut down bushes at side of existing path.





- 8: Remove large rocks.
- 9. Widen sides of road.
- 10. Throw loose soil in low areas on road.
- 11: Smooth earth.
- 12. Dig simple V-shaped culverts for drainage across road where needed.
- 13. Throw even-sized stones on road.
- 14. Run roller (preferably motor driven) over road to push stones into road surface and level road.
- Teach villagers how to maintain road. 15.

Project D

Family Gardens

- 1. Identify 25 families willing to participate in garden project.
- 2. Conduct health education programs relating to nutritional deficiencies.
- 3: With participating families:
 - a. plan size of gardens
 - select crops.
- 4: Collect and distribute supplies and equipment
- Start gardens.
- Assist participating families in conducting workshops for other villagers.

Step 4:

Write your Tasks

Use form #3 to list your tasks. Follow these steps:

- Produce a list of all the tasks in your project.
- 2. Check the list of tasks. Then:

 - combine or omit similar tasks; and be certain tasks are specific, and follow guides on page
- List the tasks in the order in which they will be completed, and number then Task 1 (the first task) to the last task.
- Write in the task number number and a brief description for each task in Columns 1 and 2 of Form #3.
- In Column , note by using an arrow () when each task will start and be completed.
- In Column 4, write in the name of the individual responsible for overseeing the compla on of the task.
- In Column 5, list the equipment, services, workers and supplies needed. Also note the amount of each required.

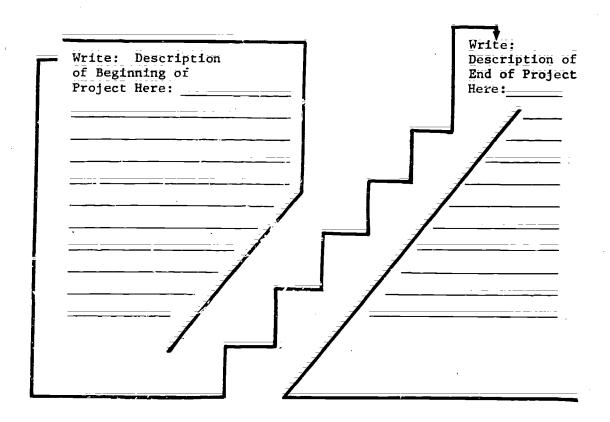
Once completed and approved, this form should be posted to enable community members to assess project progress.

Now complete Form #3 below.

Name:		 		_	. —	_
Date: _	•					
Project:			 _			

Form #3

DESCRIPTION OF END AND BEGINNING OF PROJECT AND TASKS





SAMPLE GUIDE 49

							unb			7			C 10 20 4		ely.,	Viec	k i	lugi	or.	.				
Task No.	Brief Task Description	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		0 1	1 12	1	3 1	4 1	5 1	6 1	7	13	19	20	Individual Responsible	Equipment, Services, Supplies Needed
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CHAPTER IV: PROGRESS AND PRODUCT EVALUATION

A. INTRODUCTION

Evaluation of a project gives you a steady stream of information on the progress of the project; the information allows you to make day-to-day decisions and improve the project. Information on the progress of a project is called "Feedback". End-of-project evaluation tells you if your project has met its goals.

B. EVALUATION: WHAT; WHY; AND WHEN

What is Evaluation

Evaluation enables you to obtain feedback on the project's operation. Obtaining feedback at frequest intervals alerts you to problems before they become too seriour to remedy. It allows you to change direction if needed, to modify timetables, arrange for materials and supplies, or handle personnel disputes.

 The prime reason for evaluating is to obtain feedback. You also evaluate to show to your supervisor that the project has met its stated objectives. In this way you obtain evidence that your group of volunteers has successfully carried out its project. Such information allows administrators to build upon your experience, repeat the project, or replicate it elsewhere. It makes you and your fellow volunteers look good when your project is successful.

When is ____ Evaluation done Evaluation is done before, during and after a project. Evaluation should take into account the data which was collected during the project planning phase (see Chapter III). This data includes information on project goals, project tasks, and person and material requirements for the project. This data is collected before the project starts. Evaluation occurs at frequent intervals during the project, as well as at the end of the project.



How is Evaluation
Done?

The detailed evaluation process is described below. You need to be objective, realistic and logical in your evaluation. If the project works smoothly, very well. If it does not, frequent feedback should help you. If nothing can be done, this very fact is valuable. Your positive experiences and your mistakes should both be documented. If the evaluation turns up some areas of unexpected difficulty, this should be described, so that the same difficulties can be avoided in the future.

One good way of developing useful information on a project is to keep a daily log. This, along with formal and informal feedback, should enable you to write a report summarizing the project during the project and when it is completed.

GUIDELINES >

C: GUIDELINES FOR PROGRESS AND PRODUCT EVALUATION

First Evaluation should be conducted when the project starts

Are the services/facilities planned now available? For instance:

- Equipment, supplies, and materials. Are these on hand.
- People resources. Are community volunteers and others available at the beginning of the project as planned?
- If either material resources or manpower are not available, what alternative courses of action are possible?

Have one or more of the goals of the project already been met:

• Have some of the tasks specified in Chapter III, been completed?



Example

For example, how would you evaluate at the beginning of a project to stock ponds in a community with fish? You might answer questions such as the following:

- Are baby fish, equipment, and supplies available?
- Are villagers available to work with volunteers?
- Do volunteers know how to stock ponds or have access to how-to-do-it manuals or expert advice?
- Are there any fish in the ponds now? If so, describe type of fish and estimate how many.

Define — Progress Checks To determine if the product is making progress during the project, follow these steps:

• Determine if the tasks or activities which you listed in Form #3 (see Chapter III, Task Oriented Planning and Implementation) are being carried out on schedule.

You require frequent feedback on progress. You can identify problems quickly. You also use feedback to see whether the project is on schedule or ahead of schedule and determine how you can build upon these achievements. (See Feedback, Methods Section, page 110.)

Specify the Products

To determine whether you have achieved your goal, it is essential to describe in measurable terms what the project will produce when completed.

- List chief measurable products.
- How will you know if the products have been achieved?

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Example:

Rug Cooperative Measurable Products at End of Project (from page 47- End of Project Description

How Will Product Be Assessed?

- Plan specifying how the store rugs; how costs of raw amterials will be handled; how pricing will be determined; how profits will be divided; and how records will be kept
- cooperative will sell and
- Quality of rugs up to specified standards
- 100 rugs produced
- 50 rugs sold by cooperative
- Central location for storing and selling rugs available
- 20% profit made by selling rugs

Written plan available

Independent expert inspects rugs to see if up to standards

Records

Records

Site Visit

Records

Name: _	
Date:	
Project:	

Form #4

COMPLETING A PROGRESS AND PRODUCT EVALUATION

	ISSUES	- -	POSSIE	LE	METHO	DS
. <u>B</u> i	eginning of Project Evaluation					
Ā1 no	ce services/facilities like those planned ow available? For instance:					
to	re equipment, supplies, materials available begin work on the project? Describe any nortages.	See	Form	#3,	page	41
-						
Ar Co	e people resources available? Volunteers? mmunity members? Describe any shortages.		Ĭ	_		
	<u> </u>			•		ŗ
	,					
wha	either materials or manpower are lacking, it alternative courses of action are sible?				•	
	·					

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		-	i	
Have any of ted? If ye	t the tasks specifies, please describe.	d been comple-		·
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			
	ecks (These should uent intervals duri		See Form #3, pag	ġē 41
Are the tas in your imp being carri	ks or activities who lementation scheduld ed out?	ich you listed (Form #3)	See <u>Feedback</u> , pa	ige 110
	_			
Dēscribē an Vill you ta	y problems. What re	medial steps	·	
		medial steps	·	
		medial steps		
will you ta		listed in your	See also Chapter	∵, pā





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_		<u> </u>	
Product (Chēcks		
	r end of project descri	iption, list	
	you know that the plodu at the end of the proje		See Practical Tes page 112
Use Form	below:		
		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Measu	rable Products at end o	f How Wi	11 Product be Assess
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CHAPTER V: PROBLEM SOLVING

A. INTRODUCTION

You have identified a project; it has the support of the community, a plan has been developed and you have started your project and may find:

- 1. Your project is proceeding on the schedule developed in Chapter III.
- 2. Your project may be falling behind schedule.

If your project is on schedule and is not facing difficulties, you can ignore this chapter. However, if you are behind schedule or are facing difficulties, here are some suggestions:

B: IMPLEMENTATION PROBLEMS: WHAT, WHY, AND WHEN

Problems which prevent you from carrying out and comppleting your project according to plan.

why should a project be completed according to a plan?

A plan is nothing more than a map indicating where you want to go: you can change the plan, but at all times you should know what will exist at the end of the project and when the project will be completed.

Are you — ahead of schedule?

If you are far ahead of schedule, ask, "Why"? Questions to ask:

1. Did the original schedule, developed in Chapter overestimate the time required? If yes, go over schedule again and plan the completion of your project in a more realistic basis.

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- 2. Are you satisfied with the quality of the project? It no: you must add appropriate quality controls to your plan:
- 3. Are you receiving more assistance than originally anticipated? If yes, you should replay to take account of the additional help.

Are you behind schedule? If your project is far behind schedule, turn to Form 5, page 55.

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Name:	 	
Date:	 	
Project:	 	

Form #5

CHECK LIST OF POSSIBLE PROJECT PROBLEMS

PROJECT PROBLEM ARBAS	EXAMPLES	HOW SOLUTIONS WILL BE IDENTIFIED
Equipment, supplies, or services in use are not sufficient or of the correct kind. 1. Yes	 Well drilling equipment will not drill deep enough. Incorrect fertilizer for gardens. Books in literacy class inappropriate No compactors for a road project. 	The project may have to be modified or changed to accommodate the equipment and supplies available or new sources found. Const ler these method: 1. Bargaining and Negotiations, page 94 2. Technical Assistance, page 102 3. Practical Tests, page 112
Volunteers and community members lack sufficient skills. 1. Yes 2. No	No One Knows: 1. How to test and chlorinate wells, 2. Why vegetables will not grow in a village. 3. The correct way to construct water sealed latrines. 4. Effective teaching methods for adult illiterates.	The project leaders require training and assistance; consider these methods: 1. Library Search, page 75 2. Education, page 142 3. Technical Assistance, page 102



PROJECT PROBLEM AREAS	EXAMPLES.	HOW SOLUTIONS WILL BE IDENTIFIED
The product being produced by the project is not being used properly or the community does not appear to be benefiting from the project. 1. Yes	1. Children will not attend an after school remedial reading program. 2. Villagers will not use latrines. 3. A village poultry cooperative is not enrolling a sufficient number of villagers.	The project may require a critical assessment to determine whether or not the services are appropriate or whether or not the recipient of the services are willing. Consider these methods: 1. Group Discussions and Community Meetings, page 89 2. Consulting Experts, page 84 3. Feedback, page 110
The project plan underestimated the cost of necessary equipment and supplies, or prom- ised funds are not available. 1. Yes 2. No	 The cement required for a bridge will cost far more than estimated in the plan. The paddy harvest in the village was poor and the villagers are unable to provide funds. It seems impossible to raise in the village sufficient funds for the purchase of vegetable seeds. 	It may be necessary to revise the plan and to scale down the project or seek additional sources of support. Consider these methods: 1. Bargaining and Negotiations, page 94 2. Technical Assistance, page 102 3. Practical Tests, page 112

PROJECT PROBLEM AREAS	examples	HOW SOLUTIONS WILL BE IDENTIFIED
Villagers do not appear to be interested in working on the project, using the results or products produced and generally appear to have lost interest. 1. Yes 2. No	1. Villagers will not use a well constructed by volunteers. 2. Villagers will not participate in a malaria control project. 3. Villagers will not volunteer their services on a road project.	Motivation and interest on the part of villagers may be important. Consider these methods: 1. Group Discussion and Community Meetings, page 89 2. Bargaining and Negotiations, page 94 3. Providing Model Behavior, page 97
2. No	 Village leaders who promised to manage the project are not doing so. Expert assistance promised by the Ministry of Health in Nutrition Education is not available. So many volunteers have left the project that it lacks continuity. 	Effective leadership is very important. It may be necessary to replace or train the original leaders. Consider these methods: 1. Group Discussion and Community Meetings, page 89 2. Bargaining and Negotiations, page 94 3. Nonformal Education including on-the-job training, page 99

PROJECT PROBLEM AREAS	examples	HOW SOLUTIONS WILL BE IDENTIFIED
Conflicts and disagreements which threaten the project have developed between key groups in the project. 1. Yes	1. A project may be developing a village health center, and a serious disagreement has developed over the location of the center. 2. A cooperative to market excess produce can not agree on the structure of the group. 3. A community organization created to plan and manage a sanitation plan for the village is opposed by some of the village elders.	Conflict between opposing groups is a frequent occurance and the real reasons for the conflict are often hidden. Consider these methods: 1. Group Discussion and Community Meetings, page 89 2. Bargaining and Negotiation, page 94 3. Technical Assistance, Coaching, Team Building, page 102
Some of the volunteers appear to be indifferent to the project, unwilling to work, not confortable in the village and as a result, the project has a high turnover. 1. Yes	1. Over a period of 3 months, 60 volunteers are sent to a remote village. The stay is ten days. 2. Female volunteers will not work on a latrine project. 3. Male volunteers are rejuctant to make house calls on a family planning project.	Volunteer motivation is an important factor in project success Consider these methods in dealing with volunteer problems: 1. Group Discussion and Community Meetings, pages 89 2. Team Building, page 102 3. Bargaining and Negotiation, page 94



CHAPTER VI: FOLLOW-UP, EVALUATION OF IMPACT

(This Chapter is meant for volunteers who follow-up or for administrators of volunteer programs who do so.)

A. INTRODUCTION

Reports of ACTION projects often are pushed aside and easily forgotten once the project is completed. A month or a year later, a similar project starts, ten kilometers away! Memories are short. No one recalls the earlier project: its successes, failures, and lessons learned. Thus, we repeat the same mistakes, solve problems which have already been solved, and develop systems which others have already thought through.

B. FOLLOW-UP, EVALUATION OF IMPACT

What is — Follow-Up and Impact Evaluation?

We have discussed product evaluation which answers the question: Did the project produce what it was intended to produce...for example, one-room schoolhouses, sanitary wells, a farm cooperative?

Volunteers and community members should follow-up on the project at regular intervals to find out if it is continuing, and if the products developed are being maintained.

- Are the latrines still in use?
- Are more being built?

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• Is the food cooperative still functioning?

The also like to ask a more far-reaching question: Did the project have an effect in terms of serving the basic needs of the community?

- Did children acquire knowledge and skills?
- Did the sanitary wells reduce and prevent the spread of infectious diseases?
- Did the food cooperative produce more income, and improve the living conditions of farmers?

Follow-up and evaluation of impact give the volunteer and his organization necessary information on the outcomes and value of the project over time. Follow-up looks at the consequence of the project. In the years following, Impact Evaluation looks at the more fundamental question: Did the project make a difference?



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Why conduct a Follow-Up and Impact Evaluation?

a. Follow-Up

Many projects have little to show for the expenditure of time, effort, and money, once the project is completed. The people who plan projects often do not realize that initiating a new method of doing things is not enough. Maintaining the innovation and having it adopted is the basic objective and is difficult to achieve.

b. Impact Evaluation

Measuring the impact of the program gives direct evidence to the volunteer organization that the program has made a contribution, and is still benefiting the community:

Without this data, you can only assume the project has had a positive effect.

When to — Follow-Up and Evaluate Impact Both follow-up and impact evaluation of programs are generally done at least six months to one year after the project is completed. It is hard to be specific on this issue. Each project should be followed up and evaluated according to its content and timetable.

How should Follow-Up and Impact Evaluation be completed?

a. Follow-Up

In order to follow up, the volunteers return to the project site to determine if the project is continuing. They also assess if the products which were produced (wells, latrines, a reforested hillside) are being used and maintained. Working with villagers, they answer these questions:

- Are the products which have been completed in use? Being maintained? If not, why not?
- What can be done to assure proper use and periodic maintenance?

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Follow-up is an interpersonal more than a technical problem. Once the project has developed products (people trained to read and write, trees planted on a hillside), it is often difficult to keep the village working on the project. Other projects, other priorities become more important.

To maintain the project, the volunteers must motivate villagers to perform the necessary upkeep. Examples are adding chemicals to the well, recementing cracks in the tip of the well, weeding the area between the young trees.

Methods such as Providing a Model (see page 97) and Technical Assistance, Coaching, Team Building, Leadership Training (see page 102) may be useful here.

b. Evaluation of Impact

Evaluation of ACTION programs involves high standards. Evaluation will not achieve the scientific accuracy suggested for research projects, where each variable is studied separately and care fully controlled. The purpose of research is to increase basic knowledge of the variables being studied. The purpose of evaluation is more limited. It is to determine if the project fulfilled its stated objectives (see Chapter III) and to show that these objectives had an effect (impact) on one or more of the basic needs:

- Health and Primary Care
- Water/Sanitation
- Food/Nutrition
- Education
- Economic Development
- Community Services
- · Energy Conservation



GUIDELINES

C: GUIDELINES FOR FOLLOW-UP AND EVALUATION OF IMPACT

Follow-Up -

- Describe your plans for continuation/maintenance of the project:
 - What is the role of volunteers?
 - The role of community members?
- List the tasks for continuation, maintenance.

 Draw a timetable for follow-up. Use Form #3,
 page 41.

List people and materials resources needed for follow-up. Be specific.

- Describe how records and reports will be handled:
 - Will this be done?
 - How?
 - Who will do it?
 - How Often?
 - Who will receive reports?
 - What will be done with findings of records and reports?

Example:

Project Water Sealed Latrines

• Describe Plans

Community members will build six new lattires. During the six months after completion of the project, a community committee headed by "x" will carry out the project. No volunteers will be available for building new latrines. Maintenance of the present latrines will be conducted by each household individually.

Tasks involved in continuation and follow-up are as follows:

62

Example: Project Water Seal Latrine (Continued)

List Tasks A Task Chart follows:

Task	Month 1 2 3 4 5 6	Individuals Responsible	Equipment, Services Supplies Needed
i: build new latrines	(one new latrine complete each month)	Committee	template, cement wire/to reinforce cement, pipes, tools for digging
2. maintains latrines a. checks on usage b. checks if clean c. checks if squat plates are broken or cracked		Committee Home Owners Volunteers	
d. checks if water seal is adequate e. checks if pipes are open or unclogged			

• Keep records, make reports: Community members will develop a report monthly indicating progress on tasks of building and maintaining latrines. Problems incurred will be listed. Copies of the report will be given to the headman. The committee and headman will discuss progress and take corrective action if needed. Copies will be sent to the volunteer organization. They will utilize feedback to plan new programs.



Impact ——
Evaluation

- a. Select and describe a few simple indicators you will measure to determine if the project has done some good.
- b. When will you evaluate the impact of the project?

 Data should be collected at the beginning of the project, at the end, and a few months later. You can then compare the before and after data.
- As compared with the status at the beginning of the project, how much improvement/change will convince you that the project has had an impact?

Determine how you will collect information.

How will you evaluate the results? Here are some possible ways:

- proportion or percentage of improvement
- the number of people using "x" before and after
- the number of cases of disease "c" before and after
- the number of acres of "x" before and after
- d. How large a sample will you look at to determine if the project has had an impact? (see Field Surveys, page 78)

Example:

Construction of a Motorable Road

Impact Evaluation

- a. Indicators selected to evaluate six months after completion are:
 - Do people use the road? How many motor vehicles come to the village and/or leave the village each day?
 - Do people say they like the road?
- b. Data should be collected on road usage before the road is constructed, and six months after it is completed.

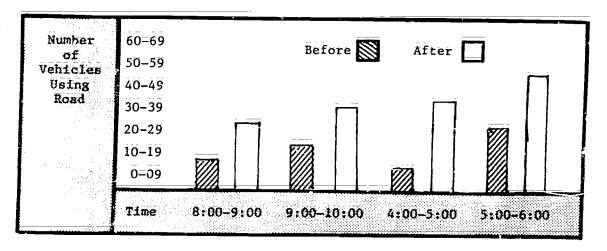
It would be useful to know if attitudes toward the road have changed during the same time period.

c. To determine the extent of road usage, count the number of cars, trucks, and motorcycles coming to town on a week day morning and afternoon before and after the project.

To assess the attitudes toward the road, develop 4 or 5 simple questions. Ask two or three villagers to interview ten families each (randomly select the families). Ask the people who collect the information to keep records. Give them simple forms to fill out. (See also Field Surveys, page 78):

- d. To determine usage of the road, all the vehicles on the road will be counted from 8-10 a.m. and 4-6 p.m. each day. To determine community attitudes, 30 families chosen at random (out of 247 families) will be interviewed.
- e. Results will be summarized as follows:
 - Usage of Road:

This information will be summarized by a bargraph. See sample below.



- Attitude of viltagers:
 - The main points of villagers attitude will be summarized in writing.

The information will be used by volunteers to determine if their project has been successful. They can use the information to decide if road projects should be repeated in other locations.

Now complete Form #6 - Designing and Completing Follow-Up and Impact Evaluation:



Name:		<u> </u>
Date:		
Projec	:t:	

Form #6

DESIGNING AND COMPLETING FOLLOW-UP AND IMPACT EVALUATION

		ISSUES	OSSIBLE METHODS
Ä.	Fo1	1ow−Up	·
	Re f	er to each major outcome of your project	
	(a)	What are your plans for continuation of maintenance by volunteers and/or community members?	.;
1			· ·
	īь)	List the tasks for continuation of maintenance.	Chapter III, Task Oriented Planning and Implementation page J
	lc)	Draw a timetable for follow-up.	Usa Form, page 63
	:		
;		What people resources are needed to follow-up?	Use Form, page 63
	-		·
	=		

 2b)	What material resources are needed?	Use	Form,	nage	63
3a)	How will you, other volunteers and the				
	community keep records and make reports?				
3Б)	What will be done?				
3c)	How?				
3d)	Who will do it?	·			
3e)	How often?				
	68				



31	f) Who will receive reports?	·
Зg	What will be done with findings of records and reports?	= .
		_
B. <u>im</u>	pact	
1)	What easy to measure indicators for impact evaluation will you chose?	
		- - :
رُحْ رُ	impact? Before the project's impact? No	
	Just after the project is completed? Yes No	
	Yes No You follow-up on the Project?	?
3a)	How will you determine that change occurred?	Practical Exams, page 112
4a)	How large a sample do you need to look at to be sure that the project has hid the desired impact?	Field Surveys, page 78
-		
	69	

ISSUES

POSSIBLE METHODS

5a)	How will you document your results?	Presenting Data and Information, page 115
5 6)	What will you do with your results?	





ADDITIONAL FORMS

NOTE: ADDITIONAL COPIES OF FORMS 1 - 6 HAVE BEEN INCLUDED AT THE END OF THIS BOOK. THESE FORMS ARE FOR YOUR PERSONAL USE:

PART II

METHODS

Part I, the Guidebook, describes the steps and procedures in planning and conducting projects. In each step along the way, a series of methods and techniques are noted, which may assist you in planning and developing your project.

Part II lists and describes these methods.

As you read the Methods Section, you will find approaches which will assist you in your project plans:

We strongly recommend that you read the Methods Section as part of your study of Part I.



LIBRARY SEARCH

Introduction

As you plan your project you will want to read further in order to develop technical and human skills related to the project. You may also wish to discuss your plans with people who have calried out similar projects, or who are experts in the field.

Description

You may be fortunate in that your project is located near a school with a sizable library. If so, we suggest that you consult the librarian or search through the catalog for material related to your project.

In many cases, you will not have access to such a library, especially if you are working at a distance from a city. Here are some suggestions for obtaining useful materials:

- The United States International Communications Agency Library. It is usually located in capitol cities of countries where the United States has an embassy. It contains useful books and audio-visual materials.
- The British Council has libraries in the capital city of most English-speaking countries.
- The United States Peace Corps and other volunteer organizations (British, French, Japanese, German, and others) have programs all over the world. Since these organization volunteers often carry of projects similar to those conducted by groups such as yours, these organizations may have manuals and technical materials of use. Staff and volunteers may be willing to share their experiences with you. Request information from the Peace Corps Country Director care of the United States Embassy in the capital city.
- United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and Canadian International Development Association (CIDA), as well as other international development organizations (French, German, British, and others), carry out projects all over the world in health, education, agriculture, and other areas. The project offices often have pertinent technical and instructional materials. Staff of these organizations may be able to suggest additional sources. Contact USAID care of the United States embassy in the country where your project is located. Use a similar procedure for Contact USAID care of the international development agencies.





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Other Good Spirces. United Nations (UN) organizations, such as IV Marions Development Program (UNDP); World Health Communication (WHO); Food and Agriculture Organization (Fig. United Nations Cultural and Science Educational Organization (UNESCO), and the International Labor Organization (ILO); United Nations Children Fund (UNICEF). WHO, ILO, FAO, and UNICEF publish manuals, audio-visual materials, and texts which will be of use. Visit or write the UN office in your capital city.

Religious Organizations (Catholic Relief Services, United Missionary Groups, and other) provide basic human needs services. These groups often have valuable instructional materials which may be borrowed. Staff may be willing to discuss their experiences in projects similar to yours.

• Development Banks. There may be a regional or country development bank in your country. These banks provide developmental assistance. They usually have libraries.

Government Ministries in your country (Ministry of Health, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Agriculture; etc.) carry out human service projects. These ministries often publish and circulate materials. In addition, technical staff at these ministries may be contacted.

Advantages

When planning a project, it is a good idea to receive ideas from a number of different sources before making decisions. Books, articles, films, and personal contacts give you ideas which you may utilize.

Disa dvantages

Reading books and talking to "end practitioners" may cause confusion. Not everyone ages a job in the same way.

Some studies and reports on development projects are theoretical and may be of limited value. In addition, studies do not report everything. They may or may no report failures. Also, some reports do not describe techniques.

References*

Volunteers in Technical Assistance (VITA)
3706 Rhode Island Avenue
Mt. Rainier, Maryland 20822, USA
Voluntary Health Association of India (VHAI)
C-14 Community Centre
Safdarjung Development Area
New Delhi 110016, India



Foundation for Teaching Aids at Low Cost Institute of Child Health 30 Guilford Street London, WCIN 1EH, England World Education 1411 Sixth Avenue

New York, New York 10019, USA

Technical Assistance Information Clearing House 200 Park Avenue South New York, New York 10003, USA

* The groups listed distribute a variety of educational material in the human services field

FIELD SURVEYS

Introduction

A field survey is the process of collecting information by observing how people behave, by asking people what they do or what their opinions are, or by counting animals, parcels of land in crops, number of wells, etc.

If your concern is what people are doing; what people want, how may goats they have, whether on not reforestation is desirable; usually the first necessary step is to get out in the field and collect the information directly.

Description

Ö

There are many kinds of surveys. For the purposes of this manual, we will discuss three basic ways of collecting information:

Directly from people: .. what they think, want, do, what health problems they have, etc.

• Indirectly from people... observing their project-related behavior.

• Directly from the environment...availability of water, sanitation facilities, schools, health centers, whether an area is a rested, etc.

There are four basic steps in conducting field surveys:

- 1: Determine the kind of information you need, how it will be used, and the sources from which it will come.
- 2. Select a technique or approach for collecting the information.
- 3: Collect the information.
- 4. Report on and use the information collected.

1: DETERMINE THE TYPE OF INFORMATION YOU NEED:

The first step is determining the kind of information you need; how it will be used; and the sources of the information:

Volunteers are most likely to seek information from these sources:

- Directly; from people; by asking them what they do; what their problems are; etc:
- Indirectly; from people; by observing how they behave and what they do: how they get to health centers; how they describe illness; etc.
- Directly; from the physical environment: the land; water; etc:

How does one get information directly from people? There are essentially two ways: formal interviewing, and informal surveys.

Formal Interviewing

Interviewing is the process of collecting information from people by asking them questions: The questions can be written in a questionnaire and asked exactly as they are written. For example: "Has any individual living in this family or family group been too ill to perform his usual routines in the last month?" The questionnaire contains the list of questions should also have space to record answers. The answers might be "yes" or "no."

The advantage of this approach is that those responding are all asked the questions in the same way. Responses are usually easily recorded.

The major disadvantages of this approach is the skill required to produce questions which produce the desired information.

For example, onsider these questions:

• "Are you stil: heating your wife?" No relier how a respondent answers, he is guilty:

What is the name of your employer?" A person who
is not employed may not be able to answer the question.

A better way of phrasing these questions is:

- "During the past six months; have you ever physically hit your wife?" The individual can respond either "yes" or "no."
- "Yes" or "no." If he or she says "yes," then another question is asked: "What is your employer's name?"

Informal Surveys

The second approach to getting information directly from recople is by informal convers on. In this case, you start with a list of general stions. You ask the questions in the tone of voice, and in the order, which best seems to fit the situation. For example, you may be doing a curvey to find out where village members get their water. You may have a series of questions such as:

- "How far away is the water source?"
- "How do you get the water?"
- "For what purposes do you use the water?"
- e "Is the water clean?"

in this approach, you might get answers to these questions in a different order than above. However, the response is the important product. The response to the series of questions might be included in a brief report:



Of the 20 families in the village:

- In 17 families, the children fetch the water;
- Nineteen families collect water from a river approximately one kilometer from the village; and
- All villagers report that they feel the water is safe for any use:

The advantages to this informal approach are that complicated questionnaires are not necessary. Villagers may find it easier to respond to informal approaches.

The disadvantage of this informal technique is that questions may not be asked in a precise manner; causing respondents to misunderstand. As a result; the information collected could be inaccurate:

When to Use Interviewing

Interviewing people, either by using a formal interview or an informal survey, is most appropriate when you want answers to questions such as:

- The number and characteristics of people in a village;
- What people do, where they work, where they gather water, etc.;
- How illnesses are treated; or
- Attitudes toward food preparation, clean water, family planning, etc.

Sometimes, interviewing can be used to collect very sensitive information such as sexual practices or questions related to personal cleanliness

Interviewing is not a lod preach when the informative required is technical; show deep a well should dug, or how a foot bride should be constructed. He a reference handbook or manual might be the best source:

In sum, interviewing should be used when you want to collect information on people's attitudes, practices, and behaviors.

Observation

A second major way of collecting information is through observation. Here, the approach is observing what people do. Suppose that you are interested in knowing if people spend time socializing the process of gathering water. The advantage to this approach is that asking questions is not necessary. All we need to do is to station an observer near the well with instructions to we can the people. He should measure the time that people spend at the well, and what they do white there.

The disadvantages are that, frequently, the situations may be more complicated than in the example noted above. Also if people know they are being observed, their behavior will change.



Information About the Environment

To Dird major appreach to collecting data is by collecting laformation about the physical environment. A volunteer may use this approach to help find out where community wells, latrines, seepage pits, etc. should be located.

This approach often is used in combination with the interviewing and observation process and assistance from technical experts. For instance, the technical expert can advise on the suitability of the soil for latrines or wells. This technical information, coupled with interviewing and observation, can assist in identifying the most desirable location.

2. DEFINE AN APPROACH

You have determined the kind of information you require. The next step is to develop and refine your approach.

In terms of formal interviews, you must think through and produce a series of questions to be asked. If you have not had experience in designing questionnaires, try to find someone to assist you. Or you may be able to find a book which offers guidance in developing questionnaires. (See references on page 83.) Another possibility is to use a questionnaire that has been prepared by someone else, perhaps with a few_minor changes.

Here are problems which often occur in questionnaire design:

- Questions are poorly written. They may be too vague or general. They may not produce the information you want. The respondent may not understand the questions.
- 2. A questionnaire may emit or leave out important questions. For instance, consider a demand for one-room schools. It is important to know the number of school-age children in a community.
- 5. At the other extreme, questionnaires sometimes contain more que tions than are necessary. As a result, they may take the long to complete. Ten to twenty questions should be subticient.
- 4. Some questions on be too sensitive and people will refuse to inducer them or lie.

One faces somewhat similar problems in designing informal surveys, though not quite so prious: Advice from experts or the opportunity to consult a reference handbook will be useful: Or you may be able to construct a good conservation-interview by following these steps:



- 1. Petine what specific information you need to know:
- 2. Reduce your information recds to a few simple questions:
- 3. Within your group of volunteers, ask and answer each question. Discuss each question in terms of what it means, and the kinds of responses the question will bring. How might the wording be improved to obtain the kind of response you desire?

In some ways; observation is the easiest technique, and in other mays; it is the most complex. The difficury 13 not so much in selecting behavior to observe, but to determine what constitutes "observed behavior." For example, suppose you wish to know whether or not children in a village play near defecating animals: You must be very precise in defining the playing area and how close the children are to the animals: The number and kinds of animals involved must also be described:

Your draft questionnaire, interview go de; or observation checklist should be reviewed by co-workers and experts. Iry outs or Pilot-tests should be made in settings similar to your field assignment to determine:

- · That be questions selected are appropriate;
- This all the necessary questions are asked;
- That the interviewers and those who will complete the object tour and given proper instructions and
- The is to understand voil questions.

3: COLLECT THE INFORMATION

Utter you find that there is a more collected or of ervations in the community than von bar, the resources or there is interview or observe, when this occurs, you will want to interview, observe, or count only some of the people, events, or things. This is known as selecting a simple, it dough be took so that the people, events; or things are relected or mindow basis. For is a simple; though not entirely scientific, way of producing a simple:

- is timute the total number of individuals, events or class in the entire community: (low many households, play areas; rivers; well sites, etc. are in the area?
- 2. Lecide on the number of individual, events, or things you will interview; observe; measure, or evaluate. This is a lifticult number to determine. Generally the smaller the lotal number in the entire group, the larger the preportion you bond Interview, observe, count, etc. For example, if there are only three play areas or two wells in the community; you may want to observe each. But if there are 500 households in the community; you may only unit to interview 35 or 50

G,



households. Also consider the time available for the study and the C gree of accuracy you wish. A smaller sample will, in general, give you a less accurate answer than a larger sample. So, if you want to be entirely sure, it would be a good idea to use a larger number of interviews, observations, etc. In any case, specify the number you wish to include in your sample before you egin.

4. RECORD AND INTERPRET THE INFORMATION

This is one of the most important steps in field surveys.

Our information is collected, you must cabulate or good information. Group it in ways which will be used for answelling your questions. A simple way of presenting the data is to do so in terms of the actual numbers or percentages. Here are some examples:

- In a survey of 100 households, 83 (or 83%) had children under five years of age.
- Fifty-five percent of the children in the community play near feeding pigs.

Advantages

- Gives the volunteer first-hand information
- Acquaints him with factors in the community which have a direct bearing on the project:
- Promotos realistic planning.

Losadvar cages

Time consuming to plan; execute; and evaluate; especially a design of the field survey is complicated.

• Quality of data is related to the design of the survey instrument. A poor instrument will result in poor data.

References

Oppenheimer, AJ: Questionnaire Design and Attitude Sacio Books, 1966

Deutsch M et al: Research Methods in Social Part 2: Selected Techniques: Dryac Press;



CONSULTING EXPERTS; TASK FORCES; TECHNICAL CONFERENCES

introduction

Volunteers only rarely possess all the specialized skille needed to carry out projects. Because of this volunteers help themselves by consulting exports, leither individually or in groups. There are many ways at doing this. We discuss three approaches: consulting experts, developing task forces or arranging for a teclinical conference.

Description

An expert is a person who is exceptionally browledgeable about a subject:

It is often possible to identify an expert in your community == primary care workers (doctors, nurses, midwives), agriculatural specialists, sanitary engineers, builders. etc. These people can help you solve specific problems in planning and implementing the project. They are often willing to help you. Develop a set of specific questions for them to answer. Bring the list with you when you interview them.

Task Force

A task force is a small group of experts who are called together to solve a problem: It can; and should; include community members: A task ferce may be called on to identify possible sources of drinking water in a community: Or the may come up with a recommendation for types of it.dlings to use to reforest a hillside: Once the tank is completed; the task force is disbinded.

By gathering together an expert group, in the common of field location at is possible to obtain affection view points. It is possible to discuss defects that is further, and to form a common object solution it is the problem.

Dehnical Conference

In a team ical conference, a group of expert the called together to advise on her to carry out a project. They discuss the project's various components, they weigh alternatives, and provide conclusions and recommendations.



Advantages

The advantages of using experts include:

- Excellent for obtaining accurate detailed analysis of a problem quickly.
- Group Interaction tends to result in thorough coverage.

Disadvantages

- The expense may be considerable:
- It is difficult in rural areas to assemble a group of
- Sometimes; outsile experts are not sensitive to the needs of a community:

Examples

- A volunteer wanted to teach emergency first and procedure to villagers. She colled together a small group of physicians, health additions, and health qualitaties in the capital city. This gave her information on which first aid procedure to teach, how to teach them, and what manuals to use.
- A volunteer group to tod to start a fish cooperative by stocking some ponds. Before they began their work, they called together a task force consisting of a fishing expert, an expert in cooperatives, a rural sociologist, and the village leaders. The group assessed the problem and determined a plan of action.

References

Robinson; Jerry W and Clifford; Roy A: Organic tion Styles in_Community Groups: North Central Regional Extension Publication #36-2: University of Illinois at Machine-Champaign; College of Agriculture; July 1971;

Taylor, Bland Lightt, G: Management Nevelopment and Training Landbook. McGraw Hill, Maidenhead, United King. No. 1875.



COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

Introduction

Community Organization is the process of bringing some of organization is a powerful way of bringing about social change.

Community Organization is effective when there are problems of affect most members. It is effective when community her recognize that they can solve these problems.

Clatively ineffective; however; when the community hole cannot agree on communitywide problems. Two these where Community Organization can be effective follow:

Tximple I

Members of a village want a road through their village; Liey cannot persuade provincial leaders to build the road. They band together in a group and present a petition to higher levels of political leadership:

Example 2

A river flowing through a village is polluted because . He gers permit cuttle to roam in the river; Villagers also dump raw sewage in the river; A volunteer starts talking to small groups of villagers ab at the desirability of keeping the water clean; If gradually it reases the size of the groups; Fibally nearly all adults in the village attend a meeting; Officers are elected and charged with the responsibility of developing regulation for using the river; They must also enforce those regulations; When this task is completed; the leaders recommend that the village construct a village health center;

The concept ing examples 1.10strate the key elements.

ince existence of problems: The community must have problems which they perceive as potentially solvable to them: This dee not mean to all members must thirtially realize there are communitywide problems. Prescribely: recognition of problems by only a few people is sufficient: Most communities have many problems which are not usually thought of as solvable. For example, with are not usually thought of as solvable, alluming infectious diseases, poor crops, dirty water, they bound the approblems are unaportable and one tractable.



- 2. Leadership must be available to create community awareness and responsibility in solving the problem. This is accomplished best by someone skilled in the process. See Example 2 above. The columteer cent about the community, meeting at first with a few individuals, and then with larger and larger groups. Semecimes, this process of building leadership by developing consensus starts by asking such simple questions as: Why do people get sick? What can be done about it? This slow process of building consensus accomplishes two goals: Community members begin to see that their problems are solvable by them. Leadership therefore emerges.
- 3. An organizational mechanism for solving problems is created. Once the group represents the major groups in the area. they will start talking about how they as a group can be effective. The group should then start thinking about some sort of organization, with officers and procedures. This step is important because it enables the group to get things done and maintain itself. They might create a formal organization with a name, ducs, membership fees, a constitution, and rules and regulations. Or the group may organize itself in informal ways, by electing a few officers for an indefinite period of time.
- 4. Plan of Action. The group should develop and carry out a plan to solve the now-recognized community problems. This is important, because it was the need for action which brought the group together. The leadership will want to demonstrate to community members that they can actually solve problems.

Rdvantages

- tommunity Organization is an ideal to mique when potential feadership is available; an identifiable community exists; and there are problems which are community-linked:
- The leadership does not have to be experienced; although experience is helpful.
- Community organization is inexpensive; it does not require highly trained technicians or large sums of money:

on and value ages

Tommunity Organization is not likely to be successful when:

Members of a community are suspicious of each other:
They have rigid cast or social groupings which prevent
members of the immunity from working together:
The bolk call or other leader may groups in the community
feet invatened. In such instances, there interested in
community organization cast first nonreases the travershed
groups.

Reff. chces

Robinson, JW and Clifford, RA: Organization Style in Community Groups. Urbana Champaign University of Illinois College of Agriculture, Cooperative Extension Service, 1974.

B inett; AE: Community Development Education. Northeast Regional Extension Public Affairs Committee; PICS; University of Maine, Orono, Maine 04473.



Introduction

Group discussion is a process whereby small groups come together for problem-solving purposes. Discussion also clarifies con. Icting values and attitudes held by group members, deve in consensus; and generates new ideas. This process is solving called group dynamics:

The techn sticularly effective when a program; project; is threatened by conflict between the part is also effective when group members are hone to see d with solving their problems. It is most seed to skilled group leadership is available.

Group discussion often faits because of poor leadership and when some group members cannot or will not compromise. A group discussion process can be held for a few hours or continued for many sessions: A session should be a maximum of about two to three hours long.

Description

Group discussion should be used when community members disagree about project priorities and activities. The process is most effective when the problems are the attitudes, values, and relations of the group members. The process is last effective when issues involve highly technical methods and techniques. Here advice of experts is more productive than discussion.

group disc ion program should involve 10 to 20 members. It targer sups, the individual is often that and ids it difficult to participate; If a larger group is no or are, the larger group can be brown into two or mure smaller groups. When more that one group is intolved, each group should pursue its own activities. The small groups should be prought together on occasion to consider larger or common problems.

The Setting

The setting for group discussions is important. The group should meet in a quiet place where they feel comportable: The resm snow a have rige; preferable round table; or at least a series of small tables which car, be grouped together. A blackboard should also be available:



Selecting a Broup Leader

This is a crucial problem in group programs. The leader selected should have the support of the entire group. Also, he should have previous experience in conducting group ressions:

There are two possibl ways of selecting a group leader:

- t. The first is to elect a leader before the program starts. You may be able to find a willing person in the community or from outside who has had group leader ship experience: If this step is followed, group members should be advised beforehand. The community must be willing and agree to accept the leadership of the individual solected.
- 2: The second process is to select a group leader from among the group at the first session of the program.

A group trader should have these qualities: He must have the confidence and respect of the group members. They must see the leader of a neutral person with regards to the issues for discussion.

The leaders must be a to to manage the group without being a dictator: He area must be able to assist the group in clarifying trains; and reaching consersus. He should be able to calmiv discuss the issues that separate carious group members:

The group leader must all the able to identify issues of which group members in a jot aware or are unable to put into words. He should at able to listen affectively to others. He should into a mers in the discussion and not dominate the actuary of the group leaders be able to redirect comments and a selevant problems. He should problem group to a members and a mistate general comments and specific issues.

In artition to the group leader; you will want to select a recorder. The recorder keeps "minutes" or a record of the major casues and agreements:

This this to take, the group leaders, a ball on the recorder to assaurize decisions reached by the group.

The group lender may itso break the group down into small, a product. This allows more people to discuss issues. It is a lender with appoint a discussion lender for the coult product.



The process of organizing a group program is as follows.



- 1: The various small groups should be brought together on occusion. They will report conclusions, and issues that each group is discussing.
- 2: The group leader should present an agenda at the first session. The agenda should not be formal. It should simply note the overall purpose of the group; the general problems on which the group will focus; etc.
- 3: The group leader should produce "ground rules" for managing and conducting the group program. These "ground rules" should specify how long each session will be: How often the group will meet and how group members will participate in the program should be discussed. Finally; the rules should indicate how to determine priorities for discussion and if consensus has been reached:
- 4. As noted above; the role of the leader is imposed or she must be a neutral person not involve. It issues that divide the group. He must be a facilitator; a person who enables the group members to reach agreement. The leader participates in the activities of the group so as to strengthen group friendships, unity, and purpose.

His role will be to summarize the decisions reached by group members and the activities of previous sessions. The leader ilso makes it possible for various members of the group to participate:

Advantages

Group Discussion is a per tentarty effective technique when:

- A capable leader is available; who has the respect of group members;
- The concern is with the attitudes and values of green members;
- People within a group discuss conflicting views of the problems and issues with which the community should be concerned:
- The members of the group are dentifiedy concerned with problem-solving; and
- The members are willing to compromise their conflicting attitudes.

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it is a proven method of arriving at group derechbat. On chird, and introducing new cleas.



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Disadvantages

A group may be ineffective and et a disadventage under the collowing conditions:

- when the group members vary considerable in starus and prestige;
- If effective group leaders are not available:

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- If agreement reached within the group then Speaks down in the larger community; or
- It small cliques within the group dominate the activities of the group to the detriment of the broader community.

Here is an example of how, when, and where a group discussion program may be organized;

Example

A community might have received sufficient equipment, supplies; and funds to construct a well or community latrine: Members of the community; lowever; are divided on whether a well or latrine should be constructed. Some have very strong beliefs about their proference.

A völunteer ledder is midble to get the edward to agree, no asks is educingly ledders to participate in a series of grown meetings. The agree to neet.

buring the first session the community an ept of the month teer as leader. The group will meet over tiper; it is not worth for three hours a week.

The first dession of the group is someomed with procedural steers. There add, than informal list of proprity is such and an application of biganizational matters are sade. In oilside papert will be invited to talk about the water proclems in the community.

At the second session, the outside ckel case introduced by the group leader. The ordert tall for 15 to 30 minutes is was agreed one about about the tall about the likelihood of the village water source being contaminated. By describes what has happened in other openions with similar conditions. For it, rest of the seperior, the members of the proxip ask questions of the expert.

At the third session; the group discusses the previous section: At this time; the group is genuinely concerned in both a covainity latting and well. However, they realize it is not possible to obtain a disidesing of for both action ties.



They agree to an informal poll of the heads of families in the community to determine community preferences:
The remainder of the third session is devoted to planning the community poll.

The group agrees that the poll should be conducted before the fourth meeting one week later. Each group member will interview ten members of the community.

At the fourth session, the members of the group report on their ten interviews. The group thus has, as a whole, 200 interviews to report on. The consensus of the interviews is that the immediate preference is for a well. The community also wants to construct, using their own resources, inexpensive pit latrines.

The group has been meeting for four sessions and has developed into a cohesive group. The members realize they have become effective problem-solvers. They agree to continue meeting on a monthly basis. They will plan the community well, make certain the well is built properly and maintained on a regular basis.

References

Cathcart, RS and Samovar, Larry A: Small Group Communications - A Reader. William C: Brown Company, Dubuque, Iowa, 1970.



BARGAINING AND NEGOTIATION

Introduction

Suppose a group of community members has plans for building a foot bridge or health center. Another group in the community opposes your plans and can prevent your project from being developed. The situation may call for bargaining and negotiating a settlement acceptable to both groups:

Description

In bargaining and negotiation, two or more individuals or groups, somewhat equally balanced in power, come together and agree to a plan acceptable to both. Groups may have conflicting needs and wants. They may have the ability to prevent others from achieving their goals. Each group should give up some of their demands.

The best example is that of the employee and employer. The employer has the power to close the worksite; but desires the profit which comes from a working factory. The workers wish to work and receive more wages. Both groups negotiate a settlement; both give and gain. The employer may get an agreement from the employees. They will not demand higher wages or go on strike for one year if he, the employer; will grant a 10% wage increase.

How does the process work?

There are two major ingredients in effective negotiation:

1. The groups must be relatively equal in power. Each must be able to stop the other from otaining its goals. Here is an example of groups with unequal power.

Suppose that; in an attempt to build a bridge in your community; your group is confronted by another group which has the equipment and materials to construct the bridge. Their plan is inferior, but they can stop you; since you cannot get the equipment and materials. You cannot stop them. In this case, the groups are not equal in power, and it is not likely that the other group will want to negotiate a settlement with your group. You have nothing to offer.



Both groups must want to solve the problem. In this case, both groups must realize that a joint solution is preferable to one group overpowering the other. The group with the equipment and supplies may want a joint solution. But the other group may not want a solution; and negotiation is not possible.

Suppose that negotiation will have positive results in a conflict situation. Here are the major steps to follow:

- The two groups agree to a series of meetings which may or may not go on for a long period of time: Agreement will be reached on such items
 - What is negotiable;
 - where the meetings will be held;
 - what the rules for the meeting will be; and
 - how often the group will meet.
- The two groups select the negotiating committee: Each side selects one person to be its key representative.
- Each group agrees to submit demands. Demands are specifice statements indicating what the group wants.
- d. The two groups agree to negotiate these domands. This means that each group studies the proposals submitted by the other group. Each group attempts to find ways to trade off elements in one proposal for elements in the other. In the case of a bridge, one group may want the bridge located in one place, and the other group want it in another. Group A may offer a trade-off. They agree to the opposing group's location if the bridge meets Group A's technical specifications.

Eventually, negotiations break off, or the groups agree to a settlement. When unable to reach a settlement, the groups may agree that an objective outsider will be selected to rule on a settlement binding on both parties:

Advantages

Negotiation is a useful process when:

- Opposing groups want a settlement;
- Each group's demands are not too far apart from the others; and
- The groups are somewhat equal in power.





Disadvantages

Negotiations is not upt to be useful when:

- One party does not want to, or need to; negotiate; or
 The Issues separating the groups are so different that common ground does not exist:

References

Taylor, B and Lippitt, G: Management Development and Training Handbook. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Limited, Maidenhead, United Kingdom, 1975.



PROVIDING MODEL BEHAVIOR

Introduction

A volunteer should always assume that he is in some sense serving as a model for community members. In all probability, you as a volunteer are an outsider to most community members. You are probably better educated and have had broader experience than most members of the community. As a result, you may be looked upon as someone special. Children will start imitating your dress and behavior and adults will seek advice.

It is important that you understand the limits and advantages to this special relationship and that you do not misuse it.

Description

All of us pattern a great deal of our behavior and attitudes on other people's feelings and behavior. If community members see you as a model, this relationship can be important. Here are some examples:

- Do children tend to pattern their behavior, language, dress, etc. after you?
- Do adults seek you out for advice and guidance?
- Do you have a special role in the project as an expert or as someone who is important?

If you answer ves to the questions above, then there are reasons to believe you are serving as a model.

The volunteer can act as a model himself by displaying the attitudes he wishes counterparts or community members to acquire. Or he can provide an outside model in the form of a visitor, a film, a case study, or even a well told story.

Advantages

Your role as a volunteer should go beyond the minimum requirements of your job. Suppose, for example, that you are constructing a latrine. You may wish to limit your role to just the actual construction of the latrine and ignore the importance of using it. The people will then also feel that the latrine is not important. So a volunteer in any project should serve also as a community model. As a model, the volunteer has an important, and to some extent, powerful role.



Disadvantages

Not everyone can serve as a model because not all community members will emulate a volunteer. Also, volunteers may misuse their model role by exploiting people (getting them to do their work). Or they may set inappropriate examples.

Examples

A volunteer is assigned to encourage kitchen gardens by providing seeds and technical assistance. The volunteer meets with families to provide supplies and encouragement. She also actually grows a garden for her own needs:

A volunteer is teaching adults to read. Classes meet three evenings a week. The volunteer and the class (15 adults) attend sessions regularly. It appears that the participants are learning to read. But the volunteer, who lives in the same village as the participants, never mentions or demonstrates the advantages of reading. Thus, participants rarely see reading outside the sessions.

References

Bandura, A: <u>Principles of Behavior Modification</u>. Holt, New York, 1969.

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NONFORMAL EDUCATION; INCLUDING ON-THE-JOB TRAINING

Introduction

In developing countries, there tends to be an emphasis on traditional ways of teaching. The students sit in orderly rows in a classroom, listening politely and taking notes, while the instructor lectures.

Nonformal education offers some alternatives to these traditional approaches. These approaches must be carefully and slowly introduced. In this way, resistance to the new idea is minimized.

Description

Nonformal education and on-the-job training encourages student participation in the teaching/learning process. The assumption made is:

If students take responsibility for their own learning, and are actively involved, they will gain more than if knowledge and skills are imposed.

Several methods of nonformal education have been found to be effective, especially with adult learners. These involve group process and on-the-job training.

Group Process

Nonformal ways of learning focus on group interaction. Many techniques of working together in groups are used. These include the following:

- Case method: Here, the factual details of a project are presented, usually in written form. The group is asked to read the case carefully and analyze it. Interaction of people, how well the project is planned, problems identified and resolution of problems, are discussed. Sometimes, the case stops at a decision point. The group has to say how the case should proceed, what decisions should be made, what the outcome should be.
- Brains forming. Here, the group members consider different ways of solving a problem. Each person's ideas are respectfully considered. His contributions are appreciated. No one rejects an idea which is offered. This keeps all the members of the group participating actively. The purpose of brainstorming is to come up with as many ideas as possible.



Role-playing. The purpose of role-playing is to make group members more sensitive to the problems and points of view of others. Role-playing attempts to strengthen interpersonal skills: ability to talk with others, and to listen sympathetically and thoughtfully.

• Simulation games. Here, group members are assigned parts, as in a play. A short script or story is written to show how the people in the play interact with one another. After the beginning of the play, the group acts out how the play continues and ends. The purpose of simulations is similar to role-playing. You could consider a simulation game a more complicated form of role-playing.

See also the section on Group Discussion on page

On-The-Job-1; aining

One example of a nonformal approach to education is on-thejob training. Here, persons who have agreed to work on a project learn to perform the necessary technical skills while working.

On-the-job training is particularly effective with adults because they learn best when solving real problems. In order to structure on-the-job training, the instructor needs to do the following:

- Analyze the job and determine where training is needed. In a latrine construction project; for example, he or she may wish to teach people how to read a simple construction diagram; how to construct a toilet slab; etc.
- Obtain the necessary materials;
- Demonstrate and teach the procedure at a time when participants require a given skill. When a person learns a skill which he needs to solve a problem, learning is not seen as a 'school book' activity.
- Make sure participants have mastery of skill. Ask them to demonstrate the procedure back to you, or give them a representative problem to solve.

On-the-job instruction is powerful because it develops skills and knowledge which the individual needs to know, rather than that which are "nice to know." Adults are willing to work hard if they perceive that learning will be useful to them personally.



Advantages

- The group will work together informally to determine methods of procedure.
- The group will act democratically in making decisions.
- The solution will be their own, not one imposed on them from above.

Disadvantages

- Nonformal ways of learning/teaching may be expensive: This is true because group discussion and problem solving require time: Many solutions are considered before one is adopted:
- One-to-one teaching and small group teaching require a lot of teaching manpower.
- The instructor sometimes has less control over the results of the activity than in use of traditional approaches:

Example

Functional literacy programs teach people reading, writing, and arithematic while they work on a job or community program.

A functional literacy program involving volunteers and community participa ts may do the following:

- Determine which village priority should be worked on first.
- 2. Determine how to set up the project.
- 3. Once having chosen the project, the literacy work may be handled by informal study groups. These meet the particular reading or math needs of the project. For example, in a building project, villagers learn to measure when measurements are needed on the project. They learn to read instructions on digging foundations when they need to perform this task.

References

Srinivasan, Lyra: <u>Perspectives on Nonformal Adult Learning</u>. World Education, New York, New York, 1977.

Harman, David: Community Fundamental Education. Lexington Books, Lexington, Massachusetts, 1974.

Ingle, HT: Communication Media and Technology - A Look at Their Role in Nonformal Education Programs. The Clearinghouse on Development and Communication. Academy for Educational Development, Incorporated, 1414 22nd Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20037





TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE, COACHING, TEAM BUILDING, LEADERSHIP TRAINING

Introduction

Perhaps the most important factor in any development program is the extent to which the program is adopted. In order to assure that the program is adopted, it is necessary to involve the community from the start: The volunteer's role, then, is:

- To give technical assistance;
- To coach individuals in the community to take over various project activities;
- To develop a community action orientation on the part of the people with whom you are working (team building);
- To develop a group of leaders.

Description

The four areas, Technical Assistance, Coaching, Team Building, and Leadership Training, are discussed below.

Technical Assistance

One definition of technical assistance might be: "helping the community to help itself." How can this best be done?

- The volunteer should define the job, and analyze the job which is to be done by breaking the job into component tasks: (See Chapter III--Task Oriented Planning and Implementation.)
 - In addition, he may wish to ask advice from an expert or experienced practitioner to help him define the tasks.
- The volunteer should think through the steps of teaching the job and component tasks to others: He may wish to develop a job aid; such as a simple checklist for each task. Or, he may be able to use one or more of the manuals listed in Part III of this book.
- The volunteer then should teach community members to carry out the project. One or more of these can become counterparts. Counterparts are people who will carry on the job once you are gone.

The counterpart might work under your supervision at the beginning of the project. You show him how to do the job, task-by-task, and how tasks fit together.

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As the counterpart learns to do the job, more and more of the tasks should be delegated to him: You should begin to phase out:

Toward the end of your stay in the community, the counterpart(s) should be ready; to take over the entire job. If he can? you will have done your job well.

Coaching

The term coaching comes from the world of sports.—The Webster dictionary defines coaching as follows: "to train intensively by instruction; demonstration, and practice; to direct the movements of a player; to direct or prompt."

The purpose of coaching a player is to build competence by demonstrating each motion in the game. The coach gives suggestions on how to improve performance.

Coaching assumes that you, the volunteer, can carry out the job and the tasks in the job. It assumes that you want, and are able, to transfer these skills to others.

Team Building

The coach also has a responsibility to the team as a whole:

- Many of the tasks in a volunteer project need more than one player. The players work together on the same or different tasks. To build a smoothly functioning team or group, the coach needs to determine how the tasks can be efficiently accomplished by a group. He then coaches the team to work together.
- There is a human, as well as a technical, component to team building. The group as a whole needs to reel positively about the project...they share a common goal. The project should become their project. The members of the group need to be sensitive to each other's contribution. They need to cooperate, to work together smoothly. They must realize that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.

Leadership Training

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Some individuals assume more of the responsibility, work harder, and are turned to by other members of the group for guidance or direction.



Those individuals might be called the natural leaders. These individuals should be identified. Their natural talent should be strengthened.

The following set of concepts and skills might be included in this informal leadership training:

concept of democratic leadership. When a problem comes up; it is generally agreed that the group should solve the problem itself. The leader serves as a moderator. The autocratic; or "you do this because I say so," form of leadership is generally ineffective. Workers feel they have no independence. They cannot structure the work to make it compatible with their ways of doing things; their rhythm. They feel that all decisions are made by their boss. People often produce more initially; and continue to produce more with a democratic form of leadership. Here the group makes its own decisions on how, when and where to work.

In order to build democratic leadership capability; the volunteer should encourage group decision making and problem-solving: He should give leader trainees a chance to moderate groups making their own decisions.

Example

Volunteers, who had received training in primary care, were asked to retrain a group of traditional birth attendants (TBA) in the Western way of delivering babies. The main techniques to be taught were clean (aseptic) ways of cutting and dressing the umbilical cord, giving antitetanus injections to the mother during the last three months of pregnancy and educating mothers about the best diet for babies and nursing mothers.

The volunteers first worked for a few weeks in the field, along with traditional birth attendants (TBA). This allowed them to determine:

- What methods were correctly being used;
- What skills needed to be taught that birth attendants did not presently have; and
- How to best interact with TBA's.

On the basis of this activity, the volunteer organized and delivered a workshop for TBA's. This workshop involved both "classroom" and field activity. During the field activity, TBA's were asked to give health education talks to expectant and new mothers. They were also asked to deliver babies using the new techniques.



During the workshop; TBA's worked as a team to solve, common problems: Leaders to moderate group discussion were identified and utilized:

At the conclusion of the workshop, volunteers chose half a dozen TBA's with leadership skills for advanced training. This group began to teach other TBA's, using the techniques and context of the first workshop. During this second phase of the training, volunteers observed the new teacher TBA's train others.

At the conclusion of the project, volunteers left not only a group of traditional birth attendants with new technical skills, but also a second group of TBA teachers.

Advantages

These techniques develop local strength. This promotes transfer of technology. The local people learn useful skills. They then can continue the project(s) without volunteer assistance.

Disadvantages

It is difficult and time consuming to promot selfreliance and independent functioning. It often seems easier to do the job yourself.

References

Lineberry, C and Bullock, D: <u>Job Aids</u>. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Educational Technology Publications, 1980.

Hersey, P and Blanchard, K: Managment of Organizational Behavior - Utilizing Human Resources. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersy, Prentice Hall Incorporated, 1977.

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Introduction

Cost analysis is simply the process of identifying the resources required to complete a volunteer assignment or project. Cost analysis identifies the quality or quantity of resources required. It analyzes financial and other costs involved:

Frequently, volunteers assume resources are readily available and that the cost of the resources is so low that cost analys; is not necessary. However, when the project is wel' under way, the volunteer may find that tools, equipment, materials and skilled manpower are necessary to complete the project, and that these resources are not available. Or, a project may be completed, such as a well. All those involved may have ignored the need for a supply of parts for the pump. Several months after completing the well, the pump breaks down...and spare parts are not available.

Cost analysis should not only help you estimate what it will cost to complete and keep a project functioning. It will also provide guidance as to whether or not a project should be undertaken.

Description

Cost analysis estimates the kind and amount of 1) materials/money; and 2) volunteer/staff resources needed to complete a certain project. In estimating the total amount of resources needed, the volunteer should consider each of the tasks listed (see Chapter III-Task Oriented Planning). He should attach a time estimate to each task. He should also determine what type of, and how much, material resources are needed for each task. Once the analysis is completed, the volunteer should develop a budget specifying people and material resources (see example below).

The budget may include items that are not, and probably can not, be reduced to a specific amount of money; that is, the service of the community residents and the services of the volunteers. These items expressed in days of services may be left out of Column 1. But the amount of services should be estimated to be certain that the project will have the necessary nonpaid service of community members. Assume the project will require 20 community members. Each person will provide 60 days of services over one year's time. The question is: Is this possible in the community being considered? If not, perhaps the project is not feasible.

A similar question can be raised regarding volunteers. Is it possible to obtain the services of a group of volunteers for so many days each, over a year?

In the example below, it is assumed that materials; supplies, and equipment will be provided by the project:

Advantages

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The more complicated your project is, the more thorough will be the cost analysis. If you have correctly and completely included all cost items, you will be sure whether or not your project can be completed in the context of the costs irvolved.

Disadvantages

A cost analysis should not be the only criterion used to determine the feasibility of your project. It should be considered along with your Situational Analysis and Needs Assessment. In addition, it does not always mean that a project should be terminated if, for example, fertilizer for home gardens can not be purchased.

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A cost analysis can be specific or general.

Here is an example which is fairly specific for a project involving village gardens in Jamaica.

COST ESTIMATE

(Dollars, Jamaican)

Year 1

To Be Paid by This Project To Be Paid by Other Sources

A: PERSONNEL

1. Paid Staff. Soil tester: 5 days at Jamaica.

@ \$ 20.00/day

\$100.00

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- 2. Community Residents, non-paid: 20 persons will serve on the planning committee. Each provides 60 days; 1200 days total.
- 5. Volunteers.

 5 volunteers will provide 2 days of service per month, or 34 days/year; 170 days total.

B: MATERIALS AND SUPPLIES

- 1. Assorted Garden Seeds.
 Sufficient seeds for
 175 families. @ \$ 1.00/pack \$175.00
- 2. Fertilizer.
 Sufficient for
 175 families. @\$.50/pack \$87.50

C. BASIC EQUIPMENT

1. Cultivating Equipment:

1 till: @ \$100.00/each 10 spades: @ \$ 5.00/each 10 rakes: @ \$ 5.00/each Assorted equipment: @ \$100.00/each

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\$300.00



			To Be Pa This Pro		To Be Paid by Other Sources
D.	TRA	NSPORTATION			
	i.	Volunteers, to village: 12 trips for 5 people; 60 trips total:	@ \$ 20.00/trip		\$120.00
	2.	Soil Testers, two persons.	@ \$100.00/each		\$200.00
		TOTAL COST:	\$5 <u>6</u> 2	. 50	\$420.00
			GRAND TOTAL:		\$982.50

FEEDBACK

Introduction

Feedback is ongoing information on how well a worker is performing or learning, and whether or not the project is meeting its objective. You obtain feedback on the performance of particular tasks, whether the project is on schedule, etc. Feedback is the best way of regulating a project. Frequent feedback tells you what is going well, what is not, and why:

Description

Feedback may be obtained formally or informally. It should be available as frequently as possible. You should plan methods of obtaining feedback:

Formal methods of obtaining feedback include:

- Tests. In your literacy program, are your students able to read the material you give them? Are they able to solve the arithematic problems you give them? To obtain feedback, develop progress tests which give you day-by-day information about how well students are learning.
- Performance Checks. Are your village counterparts able to perform each step in preparing the ground and planting seedlings? A checklist outlining the main tasks or steps can help you determine if some tasks are performed improperly or not at all.

Informal methods. For volunteer projects, informal methods of obtaining feedback are highly recommended. Find out from your fellow volunteers and village counterparts what part of the work is going well and where the difficulties occur. Observe people at work. Listen to accounts of what happened. Ask questions:

Advantages

You are able to maintain control of your project if you know what is going on. You can meet problems head on, anticipate shortages, and keep the timetable from slowing up.

Disadvantages

In order to obtain feedback, careful plans must be made and implemented. It is sometimes inconvient or difficult to make changes when the feedback shows you that problems exist. Obtaining feedback is a lot of work and requires discipline:



References

Bloom Hastings, Madaus: Handbook of Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning. New York, McGraw-Hill, 1971.

Ebel, RL: Essentials of Educational Measurement. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1972.

Clark, N and Caffery J: Demistifying Evaluation, New York, World Education, 1414 Sixth Avenue, New York 10019, 1979.

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Introduction

Practical tests allow you to observe and assess the worker as he performs a critical task. Such tests are useful in giving you exact information on whether community members are able to perform tasks which are part of the project. If people are not able to perform the tasks, you may have to show them how to do the task correctly, or at least the part of the task with which they are having difficulty.

Description

A practical test is a test of performance. It tests the actual on-the-job slill, thinking, doing, communicating, or comes as close as possible to testing that skill.

One simple way of testing performance is by constructing checklists which outline the critical steps in the procedure.

Directions for constructing a practical test follow:

1. Decide on Critical Steps.

First, decide what the critical, important steps are in performing the task...

- List all the steps;
- Cross out unnecessary steps; and
- Order steps as they would be performed on the job.

For example, in the following checklist, steps c, g, and i could probably be crossed out...

Checklist for Sterilizing Instruments

- a. Uses cleansing agent.
- b. Washes instruments.
- c. Drains water from sterilizer.
- d. Rinses sterilizer.
- e. Places instruments in sterilizer.
- f. Adds water to cover.
- g. Turns on heat.
- h. Brings water to boil.
- i. Tests whether water is boiling at 212°.
- j. Boils equipment 15 minutes.



Item c. could probably be omitted because in order to rinse the sterilizer, the water would have to be drained. Item g. could be crossed out because the heat needs to be turned on to boil the water. Item i. could be crossed out because you need not test the temperature if the water is boiling. (If the water is boiling, it is already at 212°.)

2. List the steps one by one.

Each step should be so written that it can be checked "yes" or "no." Statement a. and b., as written, can easily be checked either yes or no. But you might have difficulty deciding between yes or no for statement c.

ä.	Uses cleansing agent.	Yes	No
b.	Washes instruments thoroughly.	Yes	No
c.	Using cleansing agent, washes	Yes	Nc
	instruments thoroughly:		

An individual checks no for item c. It is hard to tell whether the technician failed to use the cleansing agent, failed to wash thoroughly, or both.

3. Describe behaviors using strong action verbs.

In writing statements, don't use imprecise phrases like "answer quickly" or "listens carefully." Try to state exactly what you mean in terms of behavior. For example;

He answers the arithematic problem in 30 seconds. He is able to repeat the recipe for rehydration medicine.

4. Develop clear instructions.

Develop clear instructions to the person taking the test. If other volunteers are administering the test, ask them to read the test. If any statements are unclear, explain the step and revise it if necessary.

Advantages

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- Easy to tell if trainer is performing correctly.
- Can be used before and after the project, and for follow-up evaluation.
- Checklists can be used to teach procedures, as well as test them.
- Accurately tests trainees skills.

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time-consuming.

- Have to agree sometimes on how to carry out a task.
- Have to agree on critical steps.

Example

Traditional birth attendants are being trained to use modern, clean techniques when they are helping mothers give birth.

The volunteer instructor explains to the trainees that the instruments before them will be used to birth a baby. They should sterilize the instruments:

Checklist for Sterilizing Instruments.

a.	Uses cleansing agent	YesNo	
Б.	Washes instruments	Yes No	
	Rinses sterilizer	Yes No	
d.	Place instruments in		
	sterilizer	YesNo	
e.	Adds water to cover	Yes No	
f.	Brings water to boil	Yes No	
œ	Boil water for 15 minutes	Yes No	

Instructions to the volunteer are to observe the trainee and mark yes or no for each step. If the trainee fails to perform one step of the procedure or performs incorrectly, the trainee fails the exam. That trainees should be asked to repeat this practical test later, after some explanation of what step was missed and why it is important.

Reference

Rezler, AC and Stevens, BJ: The Nurse Evaluator in Education and Service. New York, McGraw-Hill Company, 1978.



PRESENTING DATA AND INFORMATION

Introduction

During your project you will collect a variety of information ranging from numbers of individuals with certain characteristics to descriptions of events and conditions. For this information to be useful, it must be communicated to others. This section presents several ways of conveying information.

Description

Information can be in two general forms.

- 1. Statistical or numbers such as:
 - The numbers of infants less than one year old who died in the village during the past year.
 - The number and location of water sources in a village that are associated with diarrhea.
 - The number of latrines you propose to construct in a village and the approximate number of people expected to use each latrine.
- 2. Non-statistical or qualitative information:
 - Why villagers will not use a well constructed by a group of volunteers.
 - How people might benefit from family guidance.
 - Services that can be provided by a proposed health centre for a village.

Data and information should be thought of as an important part of your project. It illustrates what needs to be accomplished by a project and documents what has been accomplished. In another sense, data and information help:

- Convince people about problems and needs;
- Focus on real issues; and
- You assess what has occured in your project.

Data and information can be presented in many complicated ways. Sometimes it is important to use them. Since many people can not understand complicated presentations of information, we will stress simple methods.

Presenting Statistical Information

If your information is in the form of numbers such as:

- The number of families in a village;
- The number of children 12 years and over not regularly enrolled in school;
- The number of hectares in cultivation;
- The income villagers expect to earn by growing a new crop; and
- The number of people in a given time period in a village who are ill.



There are several ways to present this information.

'. Tabular form: Supposing you have collected information showing the number of people during a week's time who use one of 5 water sources in a village and became ill during that week. You may want to present the information this way.

<u></u>		 	-	
Wacer Source	Number of People Using This Water Source	Number of People III Last Week	Percentage Who Became 111	Number of People Out of 10 Who Became Ill While Using That Water Source
The well by the footpath	30	12	40%	4 out of 10 People or nearly half
The well by the Headman's house		5	20%	About 2 out of 10
The stream by the tempie		6	69%	Nore than half or 6 out of 10
The well by the temple	40	1	2.5%	2 out of 10 or very few
The well by the paddy fields	15	ië	66.7%	A large number, more than half or nearly 7 out of 10
TOTALS	120	33	28%	

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You will note in this approach:

- a. The water source is identified.
- b. Someone has counted the number of people (children and adults) who used each water source during an identified week.
- c. Number of peole using each water source who reported being ill during the week.
- d. The percentage of people who became ill using a particular water source. Percentages are computed as follows:

Number of peole ill = $\frac{12}{30}$ = 40%Number using a water source = 30

- e: In other words, divide 12 by 30 and multiply by 100. Thus 12 divided by 30 = .4 x 100 = 40.
- f. Some people will have difficulty in understanding percentages, so you may want to use terms such as:
 - 'more than half' or 'very few'
 - "two out of 10" or "6 out of 10".

There are other problems and issues about using information such as presented above:

- a. The stream by the temple may be contributing to illness, but is there some special reason why the stream is dirty? Perhaps someone defecated near the stream.
- b. The well by the paddy fields and the stream by the temple may be carrying illness. Treat the water and conduct a second study.
- c. People using the well by the footpath, the stream by the temple and the well by the paddy fields, may be eating spoiled food which is producing illness and not the well.
- d. It is probably safe to assume that the well by the temple is safe.

Summary. A simple way of presenting the same information.

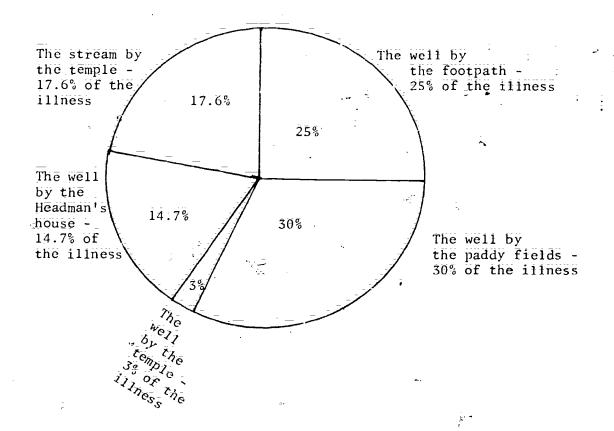
Water sources which may be dangerous:

- the well by the footpath;
- the stream by the temple; and
- the well by the paddy field.

Water sources which may be safe to use:

- the well by the headman's house; and
- the well by the temple.

2. Pie Chart: Still another way is to use a "pie" chart. The chart below shows the proportion of illness in the village as related to each source of water.



You will notice that the "pie chart" presents the information in a different way than the table:

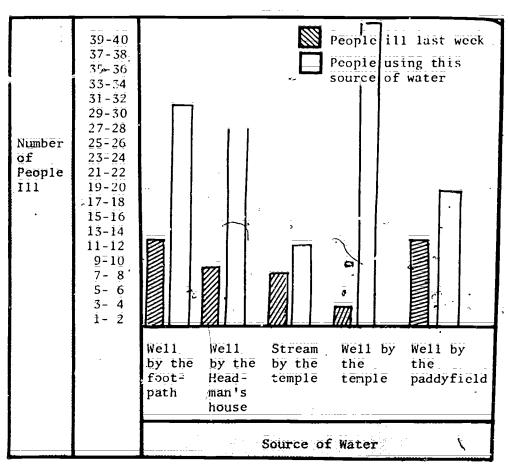
- a. The table presents the information in terms of the percentage of users who became ill according to the water source they used.
- b. The pie chart presents the information in terms of the contribution each water source makes to the total number of illnesses.

 For example: The well by the foot path had 12 of the 34 illnesses. Its share of the illness was 35%, which was arrived at as follows:

 $12 \div 34 = .35 \times 100 = 35\%$

The Bar Graph: The bar graph is another simple clear way of picturing data.

Let us again use the data of the relation of the illness to the water source.



The bar graph allows you to visually compare the two statistics which have been collected. Statistics can be paired. Also, each pair can be compared with the others.

Advantages of This Approach

• A great deal of information can be assembled and presented in simple ways.

 Most people can understand simple ways of clarifying data or simple statistics.

Statistics can be useful in pinpointing problems.

Disadvantages

Statistics sometimes distort the event being measured. For example, in the case used above, it is possible that other factors are involved rather than water.

• The statistics may not have been collected properly.

Non-Statistical Data

- 1. Maps: You may want to produce a map of the village in which you are working showing for example the location of proposed latrines, wells, footpaths, etc.
- 2. Personal Experience: People can be asked to tell others about their experience. For example, if you are concerned with infant mortality you might bring together village leaders and 6 to 8 mothers who have lost babies and ask their mothers to describe what happened.

Advantages

- Very easy to communicate.
- Often this approach has a strong impact.

Disadvantages

- A map may not pinpoint the proposed location of latrines sufficiently enough to satisfy villagers.
- Personal stories may not identify the real issues.



PART III

HOW TO DO IT MANUALS

This bibliography has been prepared for use by volunteers in solving on-the-job problems relating to the following issues:

- 1.00 Health and Primary Care
- 2.00 Water and Sanitation
- 3.00 Nutrition and Food Production
- 4.00 Education
- 5.00 Economic Development
- 6.00 Community Services
- 7.00 Energy and Conservation
- 8.00 Miscellaneous

All books are in English unless otherwise noted.

The manuals selected for this bibliography were chosen on the basis of the following criteria:

Target Population

- Is the target population described in the manual?

Task Analysis and Learning Objectives

- Are the tasks described in steps small enough to facilitate performance?
- Does the content reflect the task analysis?

Content

- Is the subject matter accurate, complete and up-to-date?
- Does the content emphasize critical issues?

Format and Organization

- Are examples, tables, and illustrations used?
- Is the format easy to follow?
- Is the manual easy to read?
- Can the manual be easily read by someone for whom English is a second language?



Validation

- Has the manual been validated?

Utilization

- Can volunteers perform the tasks without expert help?
- Can the manual be used by volunteers who have never done the work or who don't have the basic skills which the manual mentions?

Description of Equipment, Supplies, and Other Resources

- Are equipment, supplies and other resources easy to use?
- Are they easy to obtain?

To obtain copies of the manuals, write to the publisher listed in the citation. If you have problems obtaining a copy, assistance is available from:

The Center for Educational Development in Health 53 Bay State Road Boston, MA 02215





1.00 HEALTH AND PRIMARY CARE

1.01. Annotated Bibliography of Teaching-Loarning Materials for Schools of Nursing and Midwifery. World Health Organization, Geneva, 1975.

"The purpose of preparing this specialized and annotated bibliography was to make available to nurse educators and administrators in developing areas of the world a selected list of print and non-print materials which would reflect the extensive scope of the nursing school curriculum by presenting a selection of up-to-date and standard teaching/learning materials which can be used with students of different levels of preparation and for professional and sub-professional programs. Part A includes print materials; Part B, non-print materials."

1:02: Akhtar S (Vol 1) and Delaney FM (Vol. 2, 3, 4): Low-Cost Rural Health Care and Health Manpower Training. International Development Research Centre; Box 8500; Ottawa KIG 3HG, Canada, 1979.

"This bibliography is an attempt to coordinate information on non-traditional health care delivery systems in remote regions of the world, especially in developing countries. The literature abstracted focused primarily on new models of health care delivery, and on the training and utilization of auxiliary health workers."

Public Health Association, 1015 Eighteenth Street NW, Washington, DC 20036, 1975.

This manual is an informative text for public health workers in official and voluntary health agencies who are concerned with the control of communicable disease. The format of the presentation is standardized. Each disease is briefly identified with regard to clinical factors; laboratory diagnosis, and how it can be distinguished from related conditions. Methods of control are described under the following: new drugs, preventive measures, control of epidemic measures, international measures.



1.04. Biddulph J: Child Health for Health Extension Officers. Port Moresby, Papua New Guinea, 1973, (available from The Center for Educational Development in Health):

This book has been prepared as a reference book to help the Health Extension Officer in his child health work. It assumes a three year period of basic training. It is not easy to read. The tasks are complex and the volunteers would need extensive training to use it profitably. Language is complex. The format is not easy to follow, although the subject matter is accurate.

The worker would also need some training to use the equipment, supplies and other resources suggested.

1.05. Bomgaars M and Bajracharya B: Sympton-Treatment Manual. University Press, Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu, Nepal, 1974.

This manual has been developed for use by many health workers involved in curative care without constant medical supervision or under the occasional supervision of medically-qualified personnel. The content includes the more common diseases, their symptoms and treatment. It is very simple to use. Language is simple and the format is easy to follow.

1.06. Corwin ML: Health Education - A Study Unit on Fecal-Borne Diseases and Parasites. Peace Corps Information Collection and Exchange No. PB 262606, 806 Connecticut Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20523, 1976.

"The purpose of this unit is to help the student reach a real understanding of how a person's habits determine his health. Through a step-by-step learning procedure, this unit is designed to present the knowledge necessary to gain this understanding in a logical progression."

The content is simple. The subject matter is accurate. The format is easy to follow.

1.07. Cox H: Midwifery Manual - A Guide for Auxiliary Midwives. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Princeton-Heightstown Road, Heightstown, NJ 08520, 1977.

This manual has been devised to help midwives to recognize and prevent deviation from normal pregnancy and labor, and, where appropriate, to guide them in the emergency action to be taken while awaiting medical assistance.

This manual is written in simple language, and as far as possible, techniques, equipment, and other information are listed or tabulated for quick and easy reference.



The tasks are described in small steps. The midwives can perform tasks without expert help. The format is easy to follow, and there are many illustrations to clarify the text.

There is a very helpful table concerning common communicable diseases on page 183.

1:08: Figueroa OV, Zambrana E, Soto ML, et al: Manual Guía de la Auxiliar de Enfermería en Área Rural: División Nacional de Enfermeria, Ministerio de Previsión Social Y Salud Pública, La Paz, Bolivia, 1973.

This book was written to help primary health care workers in Bolivia. The tasks are described step-by-step. This manual is written in simple language, and, as far as possible, techniques, equipment and other information are listed and tabulated for quick and easy reference. Many aspects of the worker's activities are described such as: authority, role of the citizen, and role of the health worker. This manual was written in Spanish.

1.09. Fountain DE: The Art of Diagnosis for Medical Assistants. Medical Auxiliary Training School, Vanga/Kwilu, Vanga, B.P. 4728, Kinshasa 2, Zaire.

This book is divided into three parts: Part I, "How to Make a Diagnosis"; Part II, "Symptom Diagnosis" (this part helps the worker recognize the signs and symptoms of patients); and Part III, "Community Diagnosis" (this part teaches the worker how to make a community diagnosis):

The author is knowledgable about health practices and living patterns in small communities.

The tasks are described in steps small enough to be performed by workers, and can be performed without expert help: Language is simple. The format is easy to follow. Equipment, supplies, and other resources are easy to use.



1.10. Gadagbe EZ: Conseils de Santé à la Famille Africaine. Division de la Mere et de l'Enfant, Direction Générale de la Santé Publique et des Affaires Sociales, Ministère de la Santé Publique et des Affaires y Sociales, Lome, Republique Togolaise, 1973.

This manua! has been written with the hope that health workers would teach the mothers in the villages about mother's health and children's health:

The manual is divided into lectures. Each lecture has an objective list, materials required, and includes a description of the main ideas:

The content is simple and the tasks are described in small steps. The worker can teach without expert help. Language is simple and the format is easy to follow. Equipment, supplies, and other resources are easy to use.

The examples on nutritional issues are well-adapted to rural Africa. This manual was written in French.

1:11. Galea J and Ase K: Manual for Community Health Workers. Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, New Delhi, India, 1977.

The manual begins with a chapter on malaria and another on smallpox. It does not describe the general or social context in which these diseases develop. The steps of each task are described clearly, and they are short enough to allow the performance of the task. Some tasks are complex. There are not enough examples to clarify some activities. Other activities are simple, enabling the worker to perform without any expert help. Language is simple; the format is not easy to follow.

The figures are not displayed within the text; this factor does not favor easy understanding.

This material is appropriate for people who already have elementary notions of health and who have completed primary education.

Equipment, supplies, and other resources are simple to use. Of particular interest is the introduction of chapters on traditional forms of treatment used by the community and not incorporated in western medical practice.

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1.12: Gish O and Feller LL: Planning Pharmaceuticals for Primary Health Care. American Public Health Association International Health Programs, 1015 Fifteenth Street NW, Weshington, DC 20005, 1979.

"This monograph has been commissioned to stimulate debate, raise the level of consciousness and promote thinking about the pharmaceutical subsection within health care. It is not meant to be a "how-to" manual but does bring together in a simple source information for decision-makers who have neither time nor easy access to widely scattered literature on the subject."

1.13. Health Centre Reference Manual (Vol. I, II, III, and IV).

Directorate General of Community Health, Department of Health,
Jakarta, Republic of Indonesia, 1976.

The objective of this manual is to serve as a guide and as a continuous frame of reference for health center staff concerning policies, procedures, techniques and methods. The manual is made up of four volumes, with a total of fourteen sections. The content is easy to understand. The examples, tables, and pictures are interesting and helpful.

The tasks are described step-by-step. The staff member can perform the tasks without expert help. the referral system of patients is easy to follow and helpful for difficult cases.

Language is simple. The format is not easy to follow. It is a good manual for those who have formal training.

1.14. King M: A Medical Laboratory for Developing Countries. Oxford Medical Publications, Oxford University Press, Ely House, London W1, 1973.

This book has been written for laboratory and medical assistants who work in health centers and district hospitals, precisely the personnel who must investigate and treat many common and important diseases.

It is a very good book with a lot of illustrations and tables. These are very helpful for understanding the content. The tasks are described step-by-step. The worker can perform tasks without any expert help. Language is simple. At the end of the book, a glossary helps to clarify the meaning of new words. The format is easy to follow. Chapter I gives a lot of information on how to read the book. The subject matter is accurate.

Equipment, supplies, and other resources are not easy to use and adapt to rural conditions. This is good material for laboratory workers in developing countries.

1:15: King M, King F and Martodipoero S: Primary Child Care - A Manual for Health Workers. Oxford Medical Publications, Oxford University Press, Walton Street, Oxford 0X2 6DP. 1978.

of primary child care a 'microplan.' This manual may be useful by itself, but is likely to be much more useful now that it is integrated with a number of other components most of which are in a comparison volume - 'A Guide for the Community Leader, Manager and Teacher,' which is also available from Oxford University Press."

The subject matter is accurate and up-to-date, but the language and the format are not simple to understand.

Some tasks are difficult to perform without expert help.

This is a good manual for volunteers but they probably need some kind of training before they use it.

1:16. King M, King F and Martodipoero S: Primary Child Care - A Guide for the Community Leader, Manager, and Teacher. Oxford Medical Publications, Oxford University Press, Walton Street, Oxford 0X2 6DP, 1978.

"This is a second of two books on primary child care. The first is a manual for health workers. This guide for the community leader, manager, and teacher has one major theme - quality of primary care: its definition and measurement, and above all its improvement. The guide is also concerned with the need to integrate and improve a worker's initial education, his continuing education and his supervision, to link his education and re-education with service requirements and to abandon such old-fashioned methods as copying off the blackboard and learning by heart."

This is a very good book for teacher and training personnel. The pre-test and post-test are very interesting and very helpful to learners.

1.17. Laugesen M: Better Care in Leprosy. Voluntary Health Association of India, C-14 Community Centre, Safdarjung Development Area, New Delhi 110016, 1978.

This book helps to answer some questions about leprosy. There are many helpful illustrations to clarify the content. Language is simple. The format is easy to follow. The tasks are described in small steps. The health worker can per orm the tasks without any expert help. The subject matter is developed with an eye to changing prejudices concerning this disease.



1:18. Macagba RL: Health Care Guidelines for Use in Developing Countries.

Missions Advanced Research and Communication Center, World Vision
International, 919 West Huntington Drive, Monrovia, CA 91016, 1978.

"This booklet is written for people in developing countries who would like to help improve the health of the poor in the villages, or in the towns and cities. It is not intended to be a definitive text. It is purposely done in outline form as a step-by-step guide to more effective health care."

A summary of the entire work is included. It is presented as an outline, and can be used to prepare transparencies or flip charts for lectures.

1:19: Manual Para o Auxiliar de Saude: Centro Regional De Montes Claros, Secretaria de Saude de Minas Gerais, 1978, (available from The Center for Educational Development in Health).

This manual was written in order to provide health workers with information about pregnancy, labor and mother-child care. The content is divided into units. Each unit has an objective, and the content is described in simple language. The content is also simple, and the tasks are small enough to be performed. The workers can perform tasks without any expert help. Language is adapted to regional characteristics, and the subject matter is accurate. Equipment, supplies and other resources are easy to use. This manual was written in Portuguese.

1:20: Marnar R and Cummins A: Teaching Village Health Workers. Voluntary Health Association of India, C-14 Community Centre, Safdarjung Development Area, New Delhi 110016, 1978.

The manual is divided into two parts. The first part concerns the process for planning teaching of village health workers. The second part concerns the lession plans and curriculum charts.

It is a good manual for workers in rural India.

The language is simple. The format is easy to follow. Equipment, supplies and materials are easy to use.

The step size is small enough to allow work to be performed.

The worker can perform the tasks without any expert help.

1.21. Storms DM: Training and Use of Auxiliary Health Workers: Lessons From Developing Countries. American Public Health Association International Programs, 1015 Fifteenth Street NW, Washington, DC 20005, 1979.

"This monography is written for persons responsible for designing and managing health care programs in the community. The infermation contained here should be pertinent to those at all levels of health planning and administration from the senior health planner and regional and district health managers to the medical or health officer who is responsible for the planning and administration of a program in which auxiliaries provide some basic health activities in the community, such as health promotion, preventive care, and simple treatment."

It is intended to be a practical, useful sourcebook on ways to plan and carry out the recruitment, selection, supervision, continuing education and evaluation of community health workers to provide a basic level of health care.

1.22. Straley PJ and Luong VN: Community Health Education in Developing Countries. Peace Corps Information Collection and Exchange, 806 Connecticut Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20525, 1979.

This manual was designed to help volunteers fulfill varied roles. Parts I and II focus on fundamental health education processes. These sections discuss techniques and approaches for working with community members to plan and develop programs that are responsive to the community's expressed needs and goals. Part III of the manual presents another aspect of educational programs: that of transmitting information about health topics.

Chapter I, "Knowing the Community," gives volunteers information which may be helpful in understanding the community and its health problems.

The manual is not intended to be a omplete reference book for all diseases, health programs or methods. The content is organized from simple to complex, and from general to particular. The tasks are described in small steps, and the volunteers can perform the tasks without expert help. Language is simple; the format is easy to follow. Equipment, supplies, and other resources are easy to use.



1.23. The Primary Health Worker. World Health Organization, Geneva, 1977.

The book is divided into three parts. Part I can be used by the primary health worker both as a learning text and as a working guide while performing his tasks. Part II is addressed to teachers, tutors and supervisors of this health worker: Part III outlines the need and means for adaptation to local conditions:

Task analysis and job descriptions are described.

Part I was written to solve problems. The step size is small enough to perform the tasks. The primary health worker can perform the tasks without expert help. Language is simple; the format is easy to follow and clear.

Part II is helpful to teachers and supervisors. There are many examples of how to use different learning and teaching methods.

Equipment, supplies and other resources suggested are simple to use:

1:24: Verderese ML and Turnbull LM: The Traditional Birth Attendant in Maternal and Child Health and Family Planning. World Health Organization, Geneva, 1975.

This book has been prepared with the hope that health administrators, educators and other health workers would find in it some suggestions for their work. This book might be useful either in reviewing and evaluating programs, or in developing new ones, as well as in forming a link between locally-organized and centrally-organized health care systems.

The objectives of the book are to describe the characteristics of this traditional birth attendant, to define his role, supervise him, and prepare guidelines for planning, implementing, and evaluating training programs.

It is a good book for volunteers who need to develop training programs.

1.25. Werner D: Where There is No Doctor - A Village Health Care Handbook. Hesperian Foundation, Box 1692, Palo Alto, CA 94302, 1977.

The introduction gives one a good idea for understanding the community and its problems.

The guide for identifying skin problems is very helpful (page 96).

There are many examples and figures to help in understanding the text. An example is: "How to Give Medicine to Those Who Cannot Read" (page 64).



Language is simple. The author is careful to use words known by the community.

This material is appropriate for people who already have elementary notions of health, and those who have the ability to use complex books; as well as indexes and lists of references.

Equipment, supplies, and other suggested resources are easy to use:

The descriptions and comments on traditional medicine; and the wrong use of some medicines are interesting issues:



2.01. A Sanitation Manual for Community Health Workers. Department of National Health and Welfare, Ottawa, Canada.

This guide was prepared for the use of trained community health workers. An attempt has been made to include information that will be of practical use in their work, both at present and in the future.

The main points described in the manual are: sanitation, germs, water, disposal of human waste, and food storage in the house. There is a good introduction about "how disease travels." The subject matter is accurate and up-to-date.

Language is simple; the content is easy to understand, and the tasks are described step-by-step. Equipment, supplies and other resources are easy to use.

2.02. Daniels I and Billau R: Compost-Toilets - A Guide for Owner-Builders.
National Center for Appropriate Technology, P.O. Box 3838, Butte,
MT 59701.

The author hopes this guide will instigate communication, including feedback, while individual owner-builders are started on the right track.

This manual has been written to give the reader information_about construction, installation and maintenance of compost toilets. The content is simple. The tasks are described step-by-step. Language is simple and the format is easy to follow. The subject matter is accurate. There is a good chapter about "Health Implications of Compost Toilet Usage." Appendix A = "Construction Details for Wood-Frame Composting Toilet" gives samples of materials which are necessary to construct a compost-toilet. Equipment, supplies and other resources are not easy to use. The volunteers will probably need expert help to perform the tasks.

2.03. Ehlers VM and Steel EW: Municipal and Rural Sanitation. Sixth ed.
McGraw-Hill Book Company, Princeton-Heightstown Road, Heightstown,
NJ 08520, 1965.

"This book defines the field of environmental control of sanitation, sets forth the important problems which confront workers in that field, and suggests solutions to those problems. This book should be helpful as a reference to workers already in the field, since it contains material dealing with the newer problems now confronting them."



Appendix A gives a useful classification of "Illnesses attributable to foods." The chapter about communicable diseases gives useful information.

There are good illustrations and the format is easy to follow: The language is not easy and is probably difficult for those for whom English is a second language. This is a good reference book for volunteers.

2.04. Fannon DJ and Frink DW: The Continued Development and Field Evaluation of the AID Hand-Operated Water Pump. Office of the War on Hunger, Health Services Division, Agency for International Development, Washington, DC 20523, 1970.

"This material permits findings based on research carried out over a period of several years on the development of a simple, efficient, hand-operated piston pump for use in developing countries. It covers plunger-valve design, slection of optimum cup material; and the evolution of cylinder coatings, foot valves, and handle pins and bushings."

The manual describes two types of pumps: "a shallow well pump" and "a deep-well version of aid pump." Appendix A provides "assembly drawings and parts list for both types of pumps." The content is easy to understand, and the tasks are described step-by-step. Language is simple. The format is easy to follow. The illustrations are helpful in understanding the content. The volunteers will probably need expert help to perform the tasks because the equipment is not easy to use.

2.05. Glowacki MH: Construction and Maintenance of Water Wells. Volunteers in Technical Assistance Incorporated, 3706 Rhode Island Avenue, Mt. Rainier, MD 20822, 1979.

"This manual is designed to aid both the technical instructor as a training manual and the Peace Corps volunteer as a field resource reference. Each logical unit of instruction is sub-divided into the following categories: overview, objective, tasks, functional skill, terminal performance test, related information, lession plans.

The chapters "Conducting a Preliminary Investigation" and "Designing the Program Construction Plan" are helpful for volunteers. Good ideas are given in the chapter "Defining a Water Well Program."

There are good examples and illustrations. The format is easy to follow. Language is simple. The manual can be easily read by volunteers for whom English is a second language. The volunteers can perform the tasks without expert help.

Equipment, supplies, and other resources are easy to use and obtain.



2.06. Hamm HW: Low-Cost Development of Small Water Power Sites. Volunteers in Technical Assistance Incorporated, 3706 Rhode Island Avenue, Mt. Rainier, MD 20822.

"The manual was written for Peace Corps Volunteers and other community development workers. It has been prepared to enable the reader to assess the possibility and desirability of installing a small hydroelectric power plant, select the type of machinery most suitable for installation, and order turbine and generating equipment. It should also serve as a guide in actual construction and installation."

The content is simple. The tasks are described step-by-step. Language is simple.

Equipment, supplies and other resources are easy to use.

2.07. Mann HT and Williamson D: Water Treatment and Sanitation. Intermediate
Technology Publications Limited, 9 King Street, London WC2E 8HN, 1976.

"The purpose of this handbook is to put together in a simple and logical form various aspects which must be considered when investigating the development of a water supply and sewage disposal scheme for a small community. This could be a rural village or small town or a school or hospital situated too far from a piped system of water supply and, therefore, requiring its own sources, treatment, and pipelines, and sewage disposal.

"The manual is intended for technicians, leaders or rural communities, administrators of schools or hospitals and others who wish to develop a water supply and sewage disposal scheme for their own use."

The tasks are described step-by-step.

The content is accurate and up-to-date.

There are good illustrations and the format is easy to follow. Language is simple.

2.08. Rajagopalan S and Shiffman MA: Guide to Simple Sanitary Measures for the Control of Enteric Diseases. World Health Organization, Geneva, 1977.

"The main objectives of this guide are (1) to create an awareness of the supreme importance of sanitary measures in fighting enteric diseases, and cholera epidemics in particular; (2) to furnish an emergency-oriented program of sanitary precautions and measures to control and contain epidemics of enteric diseases; (3) to prepare the planning in an emergency; (4) to stimulate the quicker implementation of long-term measures, on the basis of the benefits yielded by the simple measures outlined."



It is intended for the use of professional personnel responsible for public health and sanitary services in developing countries. The activities are described in small steps and a checklist is given after each activity. There are good illustrations, tables and examples. The format is easy to follow. Language is easy. The original draft of this guide was circulated to a number of experts in different parts of the world to validate. Equipment, supplies, and other resources are easy to use.

2:09 Rybczynski W, Polprasert C and McGarry M: Low-Cost Technology Options for Sanitation. International Development Research Centre, Box 8500, Ottawa KiG 3iiG, Canada, 1978.

"This comprehensive technology review and bibliography describes alternative approaches to collection, treatment, reuse and disposal of human waste.

"This bibliography is comprised of technical documents that describe experiences and contain data useful in the evaluation or implementation of a technology related to human excreta and waste water disposal. Emphasis has been place on low-cost, labor-intensive technologies appropriate to the needs and resources of rural and semi-urban areas.

"It is designed to describe to the policymaker, the administrator and the engineer the broad range of approaches to human wastes management available today." It is a good annotated bibliography for volunteers.

2.10. Wagner EG and Lanoix YN: Excreta Disposal for Rural Areas and Small Communities. World Health Organization, Geneva, 1958.

"This monograph is addressed to the public health administrators, the medical officers of health, the civil or sanitary engineers engaged in public health, and the sanitarians. They will find in it not only technical data relating to particular rural excreta disposal facilities, but also information on what is believed to be needed or to be done in order to achieve success in programs of excreta disposal in rural areas and small communities." The chapters "Public Health Importance of Excreta Disposal" and "Social and Psychological Implications of Rural Sanitation Programs" are fundamental for individuals who want to develop sanitation programs in small communities. The text was circulated to forty experts in different parts of the world for their comments and suggestions.

Language is simple. The format is easy to follow. The subject matter is accurate. Equipment, supplies, and other resources are easy to use without expert help.



2.11. Watt SB and Wood WE: Hand Dug Wells and Their Construction. Intermediate Technology Publications Limited, 9 King Street, London WC2E SHN, 1976.

"This manual will serve as a guide to those wishing to encourage villagers to improve the reliability and wholesomeness of their drinking water. It presents simply, but in detail, a range of technology suitable for exploiting ground water sources at low cost, with minimum sophisticated technology and with the greatest input of village labor and skills."

The tasks are described step-by-step. Chapter 25 gives a "useful source of basic information on hand dug well construction."

There are good illustrations and good examples to better understand the subject matter. The format is easy to follow. Language is simple. The volunteer will probably need expert help to perform the tasks.

Equipment, supplies and other resources are not easy to obtain in rural communities.

3.00 NHTRITION AND FOOD PRODUCTION

3.01. Brown JE and Brown RC: Manuel Pour la Lutte Contre la Malnutrition des Enfants: Un Guide Pratique au Niveau de la Communauté.

Task Force on World Hunger, Presbyterian Church in the United States;
341 Ponce de Leon Avenue NE, Atlanta, GA 30303, 1977.

This manual was written for health personnel who work with problems of nutrition in villages. The content is simple. The description of prevention and rehabilitation centres is very helpful and clear. The tasks are simple enough to be performed by the worker without any help:

Language is simple and the format is easy to follow. Equipment, supplies and other resources are easy to use. This is good material for volunteers, especially those who work in rural Africa.

This manual was written in French.

3.02. Cameron M and Hofvander Y: Manual on Feeding Infants and Young Children.
Second Edition. Protein-Calorie Advisory Group, Room A-555;
United Nations, New York, NY 10017, 1976.

This minual is designed to help those who are working in the fields of health and nutrition. It is more a reference book than a manual. The content is general. The tasks are not described step-by-step. It is not easy to follow.

Language is simple; subject matter is accurate. Equipment, supplies, and other resources are easy to use.

This manual is also available in French and Spanish.

Ghosh S: The Feeding and Care of Infants and Young Children: Voluntary Health Association of India, C-14 Community Centre, Safdarjung Development Area, New Delhi 110016, 1977.

The aim of this book is to provide a practical background of knowledge to all those concerned with health and nutrition. It explains we preventive treatment and improvement in health and nutrition of both infants and their mothers are necessary, as well as how this can be achieved. The annexes are very helpful with recommendations on diets for different ages (page 83) and weaning foods and measures (page 106):

The tasks are briefly described and the volunteers can perform them without expert help:

The language is simple: The format is easy to follow: the illustrations are helpful in understanding the subject matter. It is a good manual for volunteers, especially those who work in India:



3:04: Taylor CE: Manual for Child Nutrition in Rural India: Voluntary Health Association of India; C-14 Community Centre; Safdarjung Development Area, New Delhi 110016; 1978:

This manual has been adapted from the book that was written for Africa by Drs. Maurice King, Felicity King, and others. These writers are outstanding authorities on child nutrition. The Indian manual is based on many years of practical experience at the Narangwal Rural Health Research Center, Punjab.

The examples of foods and meals are very good for workers in rural India.

The content is not very simple and the tasks are not described in small steps.

This book is helpful for workers with good English skills: The language is not simple. The workers need some knowledge of nutrition as a prerequisite. The format is not easy to follow. The subject matter is accurate and the examples are well-adapted to rural India:

Equipment, supplies and other resources suggested are easy to use. It is a good reference manual for volunteers:

3.05. Shack KW: Teaching Nutrition in Developing Countries or the Joys of Eating Dark Green Leaves. Meals for Millions Foundation, 1800 Olympic Boulevarg, P.O. Box 680, Santa Monica, CA 90406, 1977.

"This manual is a report from an international workshop on nutritional education techniques used in developing countries. It is important for persons who have a professional interest in how to program, to communicate, to teach, to integrate and to evaluate nutrition concepts. Some of the papers, while by no means definitive, suggest innovative techniques. They are not theoretical, but practical.

"The presentations are divided into seven sections:

- A Philosophy of Education,
- Integrated Approach to Nutrition Education,
- Nutrition Rehabilitation Centers/Training Auxiliary,
- Nutritionists.
- Mass Media Approach to Nutrition Education,
- Educational Tools for Nutrition Education,
- Nutrition Education Programs in Selected Countries,
- Evaluation of Nutrition Education.

"These sections represent the topics presented at the workshop and generally cover the types of nutrition education programs found in the field. Note that formal education techniques were not presented, since the workshop stressed application to semi-literate and illiterate people."

5.06. Attfield IID: Raising Rabbits. Volunteers in Technical Assistance Incorporated, 3706 Rhode Island Avenue, Mt. Rainier, MD 20822, 1977.

"This manual presents an overview of the entire process of raising rabbits - from selecting healthy animals to preparing proper foods to treating disease. A separate section of the manual includes step-by-step procedures for the construction of a hut to house two does and one buck."

The content is simple. The volunteer can perform the tasks without expert help. Language is simple and the format easy to follow. Equipment, supplies, and other resources are easy to use.

3.07: Chakroff M: Fresh Water Fish Pond Culture and Management. Volunteers in Technical Assistance Incorporated, 3706 Rhode Island Avenue, Mt. Rainier, MD 20822, 1976.

"This how-to manual is designed as a working and teaching tool for extension agents. It is for their use as they establish and/or maintain local fish pond operations. The information is printed here to 1) facilitate technology transfer and 2) provide a clear guide for warm water fish pond construction and management. A valuable listing of resources at the end of this manual will give further direction to those wishing more information on various aspects of fish pond operations."

The content is simple. A lot of examples and illustrations are helpful in understanding the content. The tasks are described step-by-step. The volunteer can perform the tasks without expert help. Equipment, supplies, and other resources are easy to use.

3.08. Irrigation-Principles and Practices for Peace Corps Volunteers:
Peace Corps Information Collection and Exchange, No. PB262747,
806 Connecticut Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20525, 1976.

"This manual has been prepared for use by Peace Corps Trainers and Peace Corps Volunteers. The contents are irrigation principles, water measurement, irrigation water control, drainage, irrigation planning and special information related to irrigated crop production and relevant problems; explanations for irrigation implements, plans for animal drawn implements useful in field preparation for irrigation."

To be most useful, the manual should be used during training as a teaching guide and instructional tool. Language is simple and the format is easy to follow. Equipment, supplies and other resources are easy to use without expert help.



3.09. Lindblad CJ: Programming and Training for Small Farm Grain Storage.

Volunteers in Technical Assistance Incorporated, 3706 Rhode Island
Avenue, Mt. Rainier, MD 20822, 1978.

"This handbook is designed to aid volunteers in identifying storage problems and deriving solutions to them. Often, the improvement of traditional storage methods will entail the introduction of new or non-local materials, along with new methods and concepts for their use."

The tasks are described in small steps. The format is easy to follow. Language is simple.

3.10. Lindblad C and Druben L: Small Farm Grain Storage (Vol. I - Preparing Grain for Storage; Vol. II - Enemies of Stored Grain; Vol. III Storage Methods): Volunteers in Technical Assistance Incorporated, 3706 Rhode Island Avenue, Mt. Rainier, MD 20822, 1977.

"Small farm grain storage is a set of how-to manuals. Together these volumes provide a comprehensive overview of storage problems and considerations as they relate to the small farmer. This grain storage information can be adapted easily to meet on-the-job needs. It has been used as the basis for a grain storage workshop and seminar in East Africa:"

The tasks are described step-by-step. Language is simple and the format is easy to follow. Equipment, supplies, and other resources are easy to obtain and use.

3.11. Pacey A: Gardening for Better Nutrition. Intermediate Technology Publications Limited, 9 King Street, London WC2E 8HN, 1978.

"The first three sections of this manual describe programs which aid women gardeners and others who produce food directly for their families. Section 4 discusses the illnesses associated with poor nutrition, and the vegetables most relevant to their prevention. Section 5, 6, and 7 are concerned in greater detail with vegetable crops and the practicalities of producing them is small gardens."

The content is simple. Equipment, supplies, and other resources are easy to use.



4.90 EDUCATION

4:01. Agriculatural Mathematics for Peace Corps Volunteers. Peace Corps Information Collection and Exchange No. PB 262631, 806 Connecticut Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20525, 1976.

"This manual has been prepared for use by Peace Corps Volunteers in solving field problems requiring mathematical calculations. This manual is designed to convey insights into various agricultural practices and techniques. Each of the units of this test is complete and substantially self-contained." Each unit may be used as a review or as new material. The tables, diagrams, and examples are easy to understand. The format is easy to follow. Language is simple.

4:02. Baucom KI: The ABC's of Literacy: Lessons From Linguistics. Hulton Educational Publications Limited, Raans Road, Amersham, Bucks, England, 1978.

"This monograph has been written by a linguist who himself has had many years of practical experience as a literacy worker in Africa. The monograph begins by dealing with the question of what linguistics is all about. The choice of the language of literacy is not merely a linguistic matter; it is a political matter as well."

It is intended for use by middle-level literacy workers.

Language is simple and the format is easy to follow. The subject matter is accurate.

4:03: Bellahsine C: Practical Guide to Functional Literacy: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 7 Place de Contenoy, Paris 75700, 1973.

The purpose of the present publication is to meet the need to disseminate; in circles directly concerned with the theory and practice of functional literacy training, the fundamental principles and essential pedagogical methods yielded by the pursuit of UNESCO's Experimental World Literacy Program, at its present stage of development."

Chapter 2, "Content Study," gives very important information about the intellectual profile of the illiterate adult:

The other chapters describe the pedagogical strategy used in some projects throughout the world.

It is a good textbook for volunteers who work in literacy projects.

4.04. Boone E, Gildea R and Moran P: Resources for Tesol Teaching. Peace Corps Information Collection and Exchange No. PB295919, 806 Connecticut Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20525, 1978.

This manual is divided into two parts. The first part consists of seven chapters, the first six of which deal specifically with resources (teaching ideas, techniques and suggestions) to present, develop and reinforce pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, and conversation. There is an additional chapter on games as techniques for reviewing the language skills already taught.

"The second part of the manual, the appendices, contains information pertaining to the language itself. Each appendix presents information in one of the skill areas mentioned above. The appendices are arranged to follow the same sequence as the first six chapters. Therefore, the first two appendices contain linguistic information pertaining to pronunciation, the next six appendices contain information pertinent to the teaching of grammar, etc. The last appendices are miscellaneous resources for the ESL teacher."

4.05. Brown E: Literacy in 30 Hours - Paulo Freire's Process in Northeast Brazil. Writers and Readers Publishing Cooperative, 1975, (available from the Center for Educational Development in Health).

The monograph was written to describe the literacy methods of Paulo Freire. It is a short article, but it gives the main ideas about the methods. It is easy to read. In the end, two interviews with Brenda Day and Herbert Kohl further explain the use of the methods.

4.06. Burke RC: The Use of Radio in Adult Literacy Education. Hulton Educational Publications Limited, Raans Road, Amersham, Bucks, England, 1978.

The purpose of this monograph is to provide literacy field workers with some practical advice about using radio broadcasting as an important and integral part of their work. It is written to help the literacy field worker or organizer in his daily activities as he stimulates people to listen to the radio programs.

The volunteer can use the material to develop programs.

4.07. Casseres E and Kirlew M: A Day With the Sharpes - A First Reader for Adults. Jamal Foundation, 47b South Camp Road, Kingston, Jamaica, 1979.

The aims of this book are: to help the students to see more clearly how what they read relates to their own situations, to give the students a sight vocabulary of 79 words as well as a number of other associated words which they will learn through discussions, to place a greater emphasis on comprehension. It is the second book of a literacy program from the Jamal Foundation. The set has a Teacher's Guide, a workbook and the reader's book.

Good material to teach literacy.

4.08. Fuglesang A: Applied Communication in Developing Countries, Ideas and Observations. The Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation, Ovre Stottsgatan 2 S-752 20, Uppsala, Sweden, 1978.

"This book may serve, if not exactly as a manual, at least as a small handle to hold onto for those who daily have to create solutions to a variety of practical communication problems."

The author gives many ideas about perception development in illiterate people. It is very important for those who want to work in literacy processes. Language is simple, and the format is easy to follow. The subject matter is accurate. The concepts are explained clearly. This is a very important reference book for volunteers.

4:09. Khoi LT: The Expertimental World Literacy Programme: A Critical Assessment. UNESCO Press, 7 Place de Fontenoy, Paris 75700, 1976.

This book is an evaluation report of experimental literacy projects sponsored by UNESCO in eleven countries. Part I describes the countries' profiles. Part II performs an analysis of the projects in each country. The appendix gives some recommendations of the expert team on evaluation of experimental literacy.

The report showed some mistakes made during the implementation of the project.

This is an important report for people who want to work with literacy programs. It gives them some very important ideas and concerns.





4:10. Kirlew M and Simone C: Henry Sharpe - A Second Reader for Adults.

Jamal Foundation, 47b South Camp Road, Kingston, Jamaica, 1979.

This book is divided into 20 lessons and the order of the lessons must be followed. The aims of this book are: to increase the student's sight vocabulary, to teach basic punctuation signs, to review sounds and teach new sounds, to improve the students' writing ability. A workbook is provided to accompany the reader. A Teacher's Guide helps the teacher in the planning of lessons.

Good material to teach literacy.

4.11. Loesel WG: Help Yourself to Read, Write, and Spell. Educational Development Corporation, 1976, (available at the Center for Educational Development in Health).

"This book is designed to help the remedial reader and the foreign-born, especially the student who has advanced past grade 4 without having mastered reading and writing. The pictures of words in this book are those used and needed in everyday conversation in school, at home, and at work."

The simplicity of directions throughout the book, the easy-to-read vocabulary, the progression and the repetitious work pattern for the units should enable most students to teach themselves, or to work successfully without the guidance of a teacher.

4.12. Macers JD and Lane MA: The Laubach Way to English. New Readers Press Publishing, Laubach Literacy International, Box 131, Syracuse, New York 13210, 1976.

"These series of 5 manuals have been designed for teaching English to functionally illiterate adult speakers of other languages. The teacher's speaking, reading, and writing skills. Each teacher's manual is correlated to a skill book in the New Streamlined English Series. The skill book is the student's text-workbook in reading and writing."

4.13 Morgan P and Campbell P: English Exercise (Books 1-2-3). Jamal Foundation, 47b South Camp Road, Kingston, Jamaica, 1975.

These books are intended for adult learners. The books provide an adequate number of passages which give information on the variety of sujects which are relevant to the student's day-to-day learning. A large number of the exercises for each item of grammar are included.

The complete course of three books is expected to be completed by the students in 9 months (6 hours study per week).

4.14. Singh S: Learning to Read and Reading to Learn. Hulton Educational Publications Limited, Raans Road, Amersham, Bucks, England, 1978.

"The monograph is proposing a substantive methodological approach to literacy instruction. It also demonstrates how a particular methodological orientation was systematically operationalized into a system of instruction. It is initially demonstrated that the whole set of teaching materials must be built around a theme of interest to adults. Secondly, the author makes a distinction between two stages of a literacy program: learning to read and reading to learn."

It is a textbook helpful to volunteers that need to understand more about the literacy process:

The content is simple. Language is also simple. The subject matter is accurate. Good reference book for volunteers.

4.15. Soria LE: Alfabetizacion Funcional de Adultos. Centro de Educacion Para el Desarrollo de la Comunidad en America Latina, Patzcuaro, Michoacan, Mexico, 1968.

This book has been written to clarify some concepts about "functional literacy." In Chapter I, the author defines the literacy concept and describes the steps which are important to follow when teaching literacy. The author gives us some ideas about the methods of teaching to read. and about materials appropriate for teachers or teacher-aides.

Language is simple, and the subject matter is accurate.

This is a good reference book for volunteers. This book was written in Spanish.

4.16. Thiagarajan S: Programmed Instruction for Literacy Workers - Literacy in Development. Hulton Educational Publications Limited, Raans Road, Amersham, Bucks, England, 1976.

"This monograph deals with a teaching-learning technique called 'programmed instruction.' Programmed instruction is a process and a product. As a process, programmed instruction is a systematic approach to teaching. As a product, programmed instruction is a self-instructional book, filmstrip, test, etc."

This is good material for volunteers who want to know more about programmed instruction.



4.17. Vella_JK: Learning to Listen - A Guide to Methods of Adult Nonformal Education. Center for International Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA 01003, 1979.

"This small book proposes to implement a new approach in adult nonformal education by indicating ways of listening to a group or a community, approaches to sharing rather than transmitting, and methods of problem-posing education: The use of codes, role plays, games and folk material."

Language is simple, the format easy to follow. The subject matter is up-to-date.

4.18. Vella JK: Visual Aides for Nonformal Education - A Field Guide to the Production and Use of Inexpensive Visual Aids in Nonformal Education. Center for International Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA 01003, 1979.

"This booklet aims to enable field workers in nonformal education situations to use available materials in creative and innovative ways to produce relevant and meaningful visual aids."

This is very important reference material for volunteers.



5.00 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

5.01. Basic Control of Assets - A Manual on Prevention of Losses in Small Cooperatives. Cooperative Education Materials Advisory Service, International Cooperative Alliance, 11 Upper Grosvenor Street, London WIX 9PA, 1979.

"This manual deals with measures of control of units in small primary cooperatives, the type of cooperative enterprise most affected by the problem and most vulnerable to the harmful effects of it."

5.02. Bottomley T: Business Arithematic for Cooperatives and Other Small
Businesses. Intermediate Technology Development Group, Intermediate
Technology Publications Limited, 9 King Street, London WC2E 8HN, 1977.

"This manual is designed to enable cooperative society managers and staff, as well as officers in cooperative departments, to train themselves to do the calculations necessary for the running of a cooperative business.

"Part I of the manual is very elementary and intended only for those who feel they need to go back to the beginning. Part II covers all the calculations normally called for in a cooperative society's business. The examples are mainly based on a consumer's cooperative society."

The content is simple. The tasks are simple enough to perform stepby-step. The volunteer can perform tasks without expert help. Language is simple and the format is easy to follow.

5.03. Cooperative Book-Keeping. (1. Marketing Cooperatives, 2. Consumer Cooperatives, 3. Savings and Credit Cooperatives, 4. Industrial Cooperatives). Cooperative Education Materials Advisory Service, International Cooperative Alliance, 11 Upper Grosveror Street, London WIX 9PA, 1977.

"These manuals describe a book-keeping system with the maintenance of ledger accounts up to trial balance stage."

The content is simple. The tasks are described step-by-step. The volunteer can perform tasks without expert help. Language is simple and the format is easy to follow. The examples are very helpful in understanding the content.





5.04. Ogden MS: Handbook for Cooperatives Fieldworkers in Developing Nations.

Peace Corps Information Collection and Exchange, 806 Connecticut

Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20525, 1978.

"Seven sections written by experienced volunteers include: an introductory section; cooperatives general concepts; cooperative organization; cooperative management, cooperative education and training; specific program-related information, and resources."

This is an important guide for volunteers who need to work in cooperative programs.

Language is easy. The format is easy to follow. The volunteer can perform the tasks without expert help.

5.05. Manual on Fishermen's Cooperatives. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Via delle Terme di Caralla 00100, Rome, Italy, (Unipub Incorporated, P.O. Box 433 New York, NY 10016), 1971.

"The main objective of this manual is to highlight different aspects and stages of cooperative management and administration and to provide information based on experience in the hope of helping new cooperatives to overcome initial difficulties and established ones to contend with modern demands."

Seven sections written by members of the various cooperatives include: formation and structure of a cooperative, the manager and his functions, management and training of personnel, financial services, cooperative education, marketing cooperatives and supply cooperatives.

The appendices to the manual are case studies of four fishermen's cooperatives in widely separated parts of the world.

Language is simple. The format is easy to understand.

5.06. Olcott L: Guidelines for Development of a Home Industry. National Technical Information Service, Springfield, VA 22161, 1976.

"This book attempts to describe the operations of the volunteer Rehabilitation Project, a handicraft project for handicapped persons (mostly leprosy patients) in Ethiopia."

The content is simple. The descriptions of the steps of the work are very interesting. Language is easy, and the format is easy to follow. This book gives volunteers many ideas of a "how-to-do-it" nature, with respect to the housing industry.



5.07. Yeo P: An Initial Course in Tropical Agriculture for the Staff of Cooperatives. Intermediate Technology Publications Limited; 9 King Street, London WC2E 8HN, 1976.

"This book has been written for those concerned with rural development programs in a tropical country. This book should help the reader to cooperate better with people who know more about agriculture than he is likely to. This book is divided into four sections: Soil and the Natural Environment, Fertilizers and Plant Nourishment, Controlling Pests and Diseases, and Animal Husbandry."

5.08. Yeo P: The Work of a Cooperative Committee - A Programmed Learning
Text and the Cooperatives Panel: Intermediate Technology Publications
Limited, 9 King Street, London WC2E 8HN, 1977:

"This book has been written as a guide for members and prospective committee members of primary cooperatives. It deals with the basic facts about the Committee, how the Committee serves the members, and what loans can be made to the members of the cooperatives. This book has been designed as a programmed learning text with material text six meetings of study groups, including the private study needed before each meeting."

The content is easy. Language is simple.

5.09. Youngjohns BA: Cooperative Organization - An Introduction. Intermediate
Technology Publications Limited. 9 King Street, London WC2E 8HN, 1977.

The purpose of this manual is to describe what cooperatives are, how they are organized, what they can do, and how they are related to other types of organizations. The content is simple, but the question of "how-to-do-it" is not answered. This is an introduction to the issue.



6.00 COMMUNITY SERVICES

6.01. Anderson LO: Low-Cost Wood Homes for Rura! America -- A Construction Manual: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Agriculture Handbook No. 364; Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office: Stock Number 001-000-04021-9, Washington, DC 20402, 1979:

"This manual is a contribution toward reaching the goal - making economical improved housing more readily available to the rural families of America."

The content is not simple. The volunteer can't perform the tasks without expert help. Equipment, supplies and other resources are not easy to use. This may be useful as reference material for colunteers.

6.02. Anderson LO: Wood-Frame Construction: U.S. Department of Agriculture,
Forest Service, Agriculture Handbook No. 73, Superintendent of
Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Stock Number 001-000-03528-2,
Washington, DC 20402, 1975.

"This publication presents sound principles for wood frame house construction and suggestions for selecting suitable materials that will greatly assist in the construction of a good house. It is also meant as a guide and handbook for those without this type of construction experience."

The content is not simple. The volunteer can't perform the tasks without expert help. Equipment, supplies, and other resources are not easy to use. May be useful as reference material for volunteers.

6.03. Basic Construction Techniques for Houses and Small Buildings, Simply Explained. Dover Publications Incorporated, 180 Varick Street, New York, NY 10014, 1972.

"This training manual has been prepared for men of the Navy and of the Naval Reserve who are studying for advancement to the rates of Builder 3 and Builder 2."

The content is complex. The volunteer cannot perform the tasks without expert help. The subject matter is complete and accurate. This is a good reference book for volunteers.



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6.04. Gallant P: Self-Help Construction of One-Story Buildings: Pcace Corps Information Collection and Exchange, 806 Connecticut Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20525, 1977.

"This manual has been designed to help field workers with little or no construction experience assist a community or family to plan and design a one-story community building."

The content is simple. The tasks are described step-by-step. The examples and pictures are helpful in understanding the content. The volunteer can perform tasks without expert help.

tanguage is simple, and the format is easy to follow. Equipment, supplies, and other resources are easy to use.

6.05. Rodriquez C: Manual de Auto-Construccion. Editorial Concepto S A, Av Cuaintemoc 1434, Mexico 13, D F, 1979.

The manual is divided into two parts: the first one describes the steps of house planning; the second one describes the construction process. The second part also describes the materials and quantity of materials required.

The content is simple and the illustrations are very well done. It is easy to understand. The tasks are described in small steps. The worker can perform the tasks without expert help.

Equipment, supplies and other resources are easy to use. This manual was written in Spanish.

6.06. Wolfskill LA, Dunlop WA and Callaway BM: Handbook for Building Homes of Earth. Department of Housing and Urban Development, Office of International Affairs, Washington, DC 20410.

"This small book tries to take the newest techniques developed in modern soil mechanics and put them into simple terms so that almost anyone, anywhere, can have the benefit of the great amount of work that has been done by the scientists."

The content is simple. Equipment, supplies and other resources are easy to use.



7.00 ENERGY AND CONSERVATION

7:01: Antoniolo PS and Farrar LC: Heating With Wood -- wood Stove and Fire-Place Guidelines. National Center for Appropriate Technology, P.O. Box 3838, Butte, MT 59701, 1979.

"The purpose of this paper is to initiate some ideas and measures to be undertaken concerning the use of wood in domestic heating."

The content is simple. The format is easy to follow. Equipment, supplies, and other resources are easy to use.

7.02. Brace J, White RR and Bass SC: Teaching Conservation in Developing
Nations. Peace Corps Information Collection and Exchange
No. PB 292856, 806 Connecticut Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20525, 1976.

"The goal of conservation education is to lead the public through a series of steps about nature, land and natural resources which include: awareness, understanding, respect, responsibility and action. This manual provides ideas, activities and resources for incorporating conservation education into day-to-day community activities. It is structured around a local center which can be used to present an on-going conservation education program by means of pictures and posters, exhibits and collections, films and discussions.

"The purpose of the manual is to help volunteers and others to incorporate conservation education into their day-to-day community activities."

At the end of each chapter, there are good source materials about conservation.

7.03. Douglas JS and Hart RAF: Forest Farming -- Towards a Solution to World Hunger and Conservation. Rodale Press Incorporated, 33 East Minor Street, Emmaus, PA 18049, 1978.

"This book discusses the role of forests and tree crops in farming and offers detailed advice and information on various economic species, the use of their products for food and raw materials, planting techniques, and suggestions and guidance for the layout and operation of schemes of forest farming. The aim of the work is to encourage the adoption of multiple-usage methods and to foster the integration of forestry with farming to form one pattern of agriculture, whenever this may be appropriate."



7:04: McGarry MG and Stainforth J (ed): Compost; Fertilizer and Blogas
Production From Human and Farm Wastes in the People's Republic
of China: International Development Research Centre; Box 8500;
Ottawa KIC 3H9; Canada; 1978:

"This collection of papers describes the design; construction; maintenance; and operation of Chinese technologies that enable the Chinese to treat human excreta; livestock manure; and farm wastes to produce liquid fertilizer; compost; and methane gas."

Language is easy. The format is easy to follow. The tasks are described in steps small enough to facilitate the performance:

There are good pictures and diagrams: Equipment, supplies and other resources are easy to use:

7:05: Van Buren A (ed): A Chinese Blogs Manual - Popularizing Technology in the Countryside: Intermediate Technology Publications Limited, 9 King Street, London WC2E 8HN, 1979.

"One of China's recent achievements has been the production of biogas from agricultural wastes. Fermenting the materials in an airtight, watertight container, methane gas can be produced and collected for use as fuel for motors, cooking and lighting, and the liquid slurry can be returned to the land as fertilizer. Furthermore, digesting the waste in a closed container kills many of the pathogens responsible for common rural disease."

Language is easy. The format is easy to follow. There are good pictures, diagrams and examples. The content is up-to-date. The tasks are described in small steps.

7.06. Weber, FR: Reforestation in Arid Lands. Volunteers in Technical Assistance Incorporated, 3706 Rhode Island Avenue, Mt. Rainier, MD 20822, 1977.

"This manual is an attempt to present some current, state-of-the-art examples of forestry programs in West Africa. It is based on the collective experiences of foresters and of local farmers and herders. The text, which focuses on the broad subject of project implementation, presents methods and planning guides useful in the West African situation, or context. The appendices contain most of the specific information on climate, soils, plants, and trees in sub-Saharan West Africa."

The content is simple; the tasks are described step-by-step. The volunteer can perform the tasks without expert help. Language is simple; and the format is easy to follow. The subject matter is accurate. Equipment, supplies and other resources are easy to use.

8.00 MISCELLANEOUS

8.01. Darrow K and Pam R: Appropriate Technology Sourcebook: Appropriate Technology Project, Volunteers in Asia, Box 4543, Stanford, CA 94305, 1976.

"This book represents an attempt to increase cross-cultural communication among non-experts about small scale technologies that are potentially appropriate in a wide variety of circumstances. Our purpose is to pursue a selection of capital-saving, labor-using tools and techniques that already have proved to be of practical value."

8:02: Fuglesang A: Doing Things .. Together - Report on an Experience in Communicating Appropriate Technology. The Dag Hammarskjold Foundation, Ovre Stottsgatan 2 S-752 20, Uppsala, Sweden, 1977.

This book provides observations on the 1976 Dag Hammarskjold Workshop on Appropriate Technology in Village Development, held at Vudat Agricultural College, Rabaul, Papua, New Guinea.

The methods used in the seminar are very interesting and the volunteers can learn much about how to do a workshop in rural communities.

8.03. Liklik Buk - A Rural Development Handbook Catalogue for Papua New Guinea: Liklik Buk Information Centre, P.O. Box 1920, Lae, Papua, New Guinea, 1978.

"Liklik Buk contains a wealth of practical and access information for rural development in Papua New Guinea." This book would be of particular value throughout Southeast Asia and in other tropical countries:"

8.04. Sample Curriculum for Service-Learning Coordinators to Use in Training Community Agency Personnel. National Student Volunteer Program; 806 Connecticut Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20525.

"This manual describes a 'Community Agency Seminar.' This seminar is a one-day training program for community agency personnel who are managing and/or supervising student volunteers in their agencies."



8.05. Schindler-Rainman E and Lippett R: The Volunteer Community-Creative Use of Human Resources. University Associates Incorporated, 7596 Eads Avenue, LaJolla, CA 92037, 1977.

"This book has been written to be a useful resource, stimulus, and guide for staff and volunteers in public and private agencies. The authors expect the book can help volunteers identify and clarify needed skills of innovative readership, trainership and administration of volunteer activity. It will help the volunteer define needed training materials and will suggest approaches to producing or locating them and using them effectively."

8.06. Smith DM, Penna F and Orme CN: Voluntary Sector Policy Research Needs.

Center for a Voluntary Society, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue NW,
Washington, DC 20036, 1974.

"This project was concerned with defining the scope and specifying in some detail the range of policy-relevant research needed to provide the voluntary sector as a whole and specific kinds of voluntary organization with knowledge and information that will aid in improving their effectiveness and efficiency."

8.07. Village Technology Handbook. Volunteers in Technical Assistance Incorporated, 3706 Rhode Island Avenue, Mt. Rainier, MD 20822, 1978.

"This handbook describes techniques and devices which can be made and used in villages. The table of contents comprises the following: water resources, health and sanitation, agriculture, food processing and preservation, construction, home improvement, crafts and village industry."

Language is simple. The format is easy to follow. The illustrations diagrams and examples are useful in understanding the subject matter. Equipment, supplies and other resources are easy to use and to obtain.





Name:		
Date:	<u> </u>	 _=:_=:
Projec	t:,	

Form #1 SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS

ISSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
Population 1. a. Total estimated population:	Library Search, page 75	
b. Age structure: • infants less than the year • old	rield Surveys, page 78	
• children 1-4 • other age groups: 5-14 15-59 60 and over • classify age groups by sex male female 5-14 15-59 60 and over c. Total households d. Average number of individuals per household		į
Education 2. a. Number of primary and secondary schools b. Other schools c. Percent of primary age and secondary age children in school	Field Surveys, page 78 Consulting Experts, page 84	:





- m. Prevalance of fleas and other insects in house
- 4. Health: Summarize data from health surveys if available or ask local health center staff to help you answer these questions.
 - a. Distance to nearest health facility _____
 - b. Are there periodic immunization campaigns for common illnesses (dyptheria, whooping cough, tetanus, TB, measles)?
 - c. Which illnesses, conditions are most common (number from most common to least common: 1 = most common, 5 = leastcommon)
 - excessive coughing/sore throats, colds
 - malnutrition/poor nutrition
 - vomiting/diarrhea _ ____
 - worms, intestinal problems
 - malaria
 - d. Mortality:
 - average life expectancy at birth _ _ _
 - infant mortality (birth to one year) last calendar year (i.e. number of infants who died per 1000 births.
 - under five mortality last calendar year. Number of children one to five years who died per 1000

Field Surveys, page 78

Library Research, page 75

Consulting Experts, page 84

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ISSUES :	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
5. Social setting: a. Local oultural practices which might affect a project	Field Surveys, page 78 Consulting Experts, page 84	
		•,
b. Family structure		
c. Major religious groups		
d. Major caste class groups		
e. Community decision-making process		



ISSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
f. Community leaders both formal and informal		
g. Organization of community's government		·
h. History and experience with volunteers		
		·
. Physical setting: a. Is a map of the community available which indicates major boundaries, roads, footpaths, wills, houses, rivers, agriculative areas? YesNo	Field Survey, page 78 Consulting Experts, page 84	





Name:	
Date:	
Project:	

Form #2 NEEDS ASSESSMENT

ISSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
1. What are the chief problems of the community? List in order of importance.	Field Survey, page 78 Consulting Experts, page 84	
	Task Forces, page 84	
	Technical Assistance, page 102	
2. What help would villagers like?	Community Organizations, page 86 Group	
	Discussion, page 89	
3. What assistance to the project will the community provide?	Group Discussion and Community Meetings, page 89	
	i	
4. Discuss ideas for a project with community leaders. Do they agree?	Bargaining and Negotiation, page 94	



ISSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
7. How will the project interact with the community — check the box which best applies: a. No changes in community behavior are required b. Change in community behavior is required c. The product produced may be rejected by the community 8. If 3a, 3b, or 3c have been checked, how will the issues be resulved?	Group Discussion	
now will the issues be rescived:	and Community Meetings, page 89	
9. Pescribe the project in detail: a. What is the project? b. Approximately how many people will benefit directly from the project?	Croup Ciscussion and Community Meetings, page 89 Task Forces, page Consulting Experts, page 84	



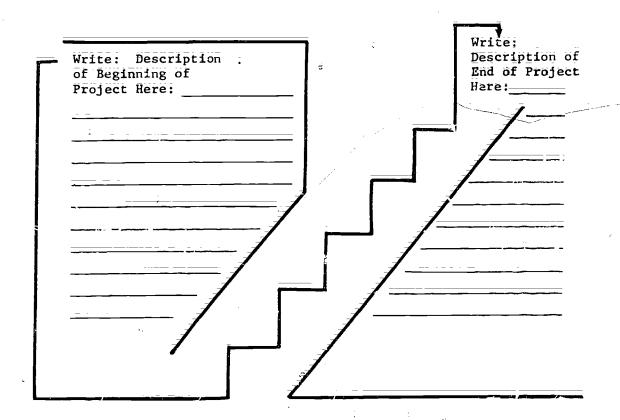


_	ISSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS	METHODS YOU USED
ii.	Is there reasonable expectation that the project can be completed during your assignment?	Group Discussion and Community Meetings, page 89	
		Consulting Experts, page 84	
		Tāsk Forcēs, page 84	
12.	Is there reasonable expectation that necessary supplies and equipment are available?		
	a. Equipment		
	b. Supplies		
	c. Community Managers		•
i3:	Other Issues	-	

Name:			
Date:			
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Form #3

DESCRIPTION OF END AND BEGINNING OF PROJECT AND TASKS





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	.\o.	Brief Task Description	1 1	2 3	Week N	7		- 8 /	of t	asks thly sis	can or v	be been	1y 	10 16	ber 17		9 20	Individual Responsible	Equipment, Set ice Supplies Needed	Ξ,
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Form #4

COMPLETING A PROGRESS AND PRODUCT EVALUATION

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	ISSUES	POSSIBLE METHODS
•	Beginning of Project Evaluation	•
	Are services/facilities like those planned now available? For instance:	•
	Are equipment, supplies, materials available to begin work on the project? Describe any shortages.	See Form #3, page 41
	Are people resources available? Volunteers? Community members? Describe any shortages.	
		:
	If either materials or manpower are lacking, what alternative courses of action are possible?	
		• .
		•



Have any of the tasks specified been completed? If yes, please describe.	
Progress Checks (Those should be carried	See Form #3; page 41
out at frequent intervals during the life of the project:)	¥ **
Are the tasks or activities which you listed in your implementation schedule (Form #3) being carried out?	See <u>Feedback</u> , page 110
Describe any problems. What remedial steps will you take?	
. Ji	
the thisks or activities you listed in your mpelmentation schedule (Form #3) on schedule?	See also Chapter V, pag



POSSIBLE METHODS

Ì	S	S	U	E	S

	Describe any problem areas; What remedial steps will you take?
3	Product Checks
·	Using your end of project d scription, list the products of your project.
	How will you know that the products have been See Practil Tests; achieved at the end of the project?
	Use Form below:
	Measurable Products at end of Project (from page 48) How Will Product be Assessed?
•	
	:
	NOTE: If some products of your project were in place at the start of the project, you will have to compare the egin ing and end of project with respect to those products.



Name: _			_
Date: _		 	
Project	:		

Form #5

CHECK LIST OF POSSIBLE PROJECT PROBLEMS

PROJECT PROBLEM AREAS	FXAMPLES	HOW SOLUTIONS WILL BE IDENTIFIED
Equipment, supplies, or services in use are not sufficient or of the correct kind. 1. Yes	 Well dritting equipment will not drill deep enough. Incorrect fertilizer for gardens: Books in literacy class inappropriate No compactors for a road project. 	The project may have to be modified or changed to accommodate the equipment and supplies available or new sources found. Consider these methods: 1. Bargaining and Negotiations, page 94 2. Technical Assistance, page 102 3. Practical Tests, page 112
Volunteers and community members lack sufficient skills: 1. Yes	No One Knows: 1. How to test and chlorinate wells. 2. Why vegetables will not grow in a village. 3. The correct way to construct water sealed latrines. 4. Effective teaching methods for adult illiterates.	The project leaders require training and assistance; consider these methods: 1. Library Search, page 75 2. Education, page 142 3. Technical Assistance, page 102



PROJECT PROBLEM AREAS	e/mples	HOW SOLUTIONS WILL BE IDENTIFIED
The product being produced by the project is not being used properly or the community does not appear to be benefiting from the project. 1. Yes	 Children will not attend an after school remedial reading program; Villagers will not use latrines. A village poultry cooperative is not enrolling a sufficient number of villagers; 	The project may require a critical assessment to determine whether or not the services are appropriate or whether or not the recipient of the services are willing. Consider these methods: 1. Group Discussions and Community Meetings, page 89 2. Consulting Experts, page 84 3. Feedback, page 110
The project plan underestimated the east of necessary eq ipment and supplies; or promised funds are not available. 1. Yes	1: The cement required for a bridge will cost far more than estimated in the plan. 2: The maddy harvest in the village was poor and the villagers are unable to provide funds. 3. It seems impossible to itse in the village sufficient funds for the coolinge of vegetable meeds	It may be necessary to revise the plan and to scale down the project or seek additional sources of support. Consider these methods: 1. Bargaining and Negoticions; page 94 2. Technical Assistance, page 102 3. Practical Tests, page 112



PROJECT PROBLEM AREA	SXAMPLES	HOW SOLUTIONS WILL BE IDENTIFIED
illagers do not a pear to be interested in working on the project; using the results or products produced and generally appear to have lost interest. 1. Y s	 Villagers will not ese a well constructed by volunteers. Villagers will not participate in a malarta control project. Villagers will not volunteer their services on a road project. 	Motivation and interest on the part of villagers may be important. Consider these authods: 1. Group Discussion and Community Mentings, page 89 2. Bargaining and Negotiations, page 94 3. Providing Model Behavior, page 97
The project is not belt a minaged or super . (sed property. 1. Yes	i. Tillage caders who have to manage the so. 2. Expert assistance promised by the hinistry of Health in Nutrition Education is not available. 3. So many volunteers have left the broject charlit lanks continuity.	Effective leadership is important: It may be necessary to replace or train the original leaders. Consider these methods: 1. Group Discussion and Community Meetings, page 39 2. Bargaining and Nepitiations, page 94 2. Minimal Education including on-the-job training, page 99



PROJECT PROBLEM AREAS	EXAMPLES	HOW SOLUTIONS WILL BE IDENTIFIED
Conflicts and dis- agreements which threater the project have developed between key groups in the project: 1. Yes No	1. A project may be developing a village health center, and a serious d sagreement has developed over the location of the center. 2. A c	Confict between opro ing groups is a frequent occurance and the real reasons for the conflict are often hidden. Consider these methods: 1. Group Discussion and Community Meetings, page 89 2. Bargaining and Negotiation, page 94 3. Technical Assistance, Coaching, Team Building, page 162
Some of the voluntiers appear to be indifferent to the project; unvilling to tork; not confortable in the village and as directly, the project has a high turnover. 1. Yes 2: %b	i: Over a neriod of 3 months, 60 yelun- teers are seek to a remote villula. The slay is ten days. 2: Femile volunteers will not wirk on a latrice project. 3: Male volunteers are refuntant to make h	Volunteer motivation is an important factor in project success; Consider wese methods in dealing with volunteer problems: 1. Croup Discussion and Community Meetings; pages 39 2. Feam Building, page 102 3. Bargaining and Negotiation page 94



Name:		_
Date:	·	
Projec	ct:	

Form #6

resigning and completing follow-up and impact evaluation

		<u>TŠŠUĖŠ</u>	PO' SIBLE MET. ODS
Ā:	<u>Fo</u> 1	i வடி-ப் ந	
	· Ĩ	er to each major outcome of your project	
	la)	What are your plans for continuation of maintenance by volunteers and/or community members?	
	, b)	List the tasks for continuation of maintenance.	Chapter III, Task Oriented Planning and Implementation page 33
	lej	Draw a timetable for follow-up,	Use Form; page 33
	-		
	Jaž y	digt ople resources are needed to	Use Form, page 53



Use Form, page 63

How w	Ill you, other volunteers and the
	•
·	
 Whiit	will be done?
How?	
<u>:</u>	فاستنفت سياكا السيبيان والرااز والرااز والما
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	Who will inceive reports?	
 3g)	What will be done with findings of records and reports?	
		•
t m	<u>net</u>	
1)	What easy to measure indicators for impact evaluation will you chose?	
, j	When will you evaluate the project's impact? Before the project? Yes No	
	Yes No D	
	Later when you follow-up on the Project?	
	How Will Wow determine that change	Practical Exams; page 192
	lies a single a leady to do you head by took At the DM sure that the project has had the described impact?	Fleid Strveys; bage 78



5a)	How will you document your results?	_	Presenting Data and Information, page 115
	<u> </u>	=	
5b)	What will ,ou do with your results?		
		- - 	





Since 1961 when the Peac+ Corps was creater; more than 80,000 U.S. citizens have served as Volunteers in civeloring countries; living and working among the people of the Third world as colleagues and co-workers. Today 6000 PCVs are involved in programs designed to help strengthen local capacity to address such fundamental concerns as food practication; water supply; energy divelopment; "Crition and health education and recorestation.

Peace Corps overseas offices:

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